

THE
ANNUAL REGISTER,
1874.

THE
ANNUAL REGISTER:

A
REVIEW OF PUBLIC EVENTS AT HOME
AND ABROAD,

FOR THE YEAR

1874.

NEW SERIES.

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1875.

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PART I.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

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THE political prospects of the New Year were greeted by the public without strong excitement or ardour of party hostility. That a feeling of discontent with the Gladstone Ministry had been on the increase lately was very evident. Mr. Cardwell alluded to it, when, in a speech at the Oxford Druid dinner on New Year's Day, he expressed a hope that "the autumnal fog which had shrouded the Government had a little lifted," and that when Parliament met it would disappear. The recent scattered elections testified to it. In the History for 1873 we have noticed the frequent Conservative victories, against which the Liberals had only to set their successes at Bath and at Taunton. The Stroud election in January of the new year now came to swell the Opposition boasts. The vacancy was caused by the death of Mr. Winterbotham, who had held office in the Government: and the substitution for him of Mr. Dorington, the Conservative candidate, by a decisive majority, showed a great change in local feeling. An election contest at Newcastle, too, though it resulted in favour

of Mr. Cowen, the Radical nominee, was accompanied by circumstances which brought consolation to the defeated party.

The Premier was in some difficulty about his own seat at Greenwich. When, on occasion of the recent Ministerial changes, he shifted himself into the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, *vice* Mr. Lowe, he did not challenge again the votes of his constituents. This was taken up by his adversaries as an unconstitutional omission; and it was generally surmised that when Parliament met he would have to stand an inquiry which might endanger his position. Amidst the Government ranks it was well known that there existed discontent, and a failing in mutual cordiality, while the old allegiance to the chief had waxed very lukewarm. Still no violent or immediate crisis was apprehended, and the meeting of Parliament as usual on February 5, for its sixth and last natural Session, was looked forward to as a necessary and undoubted occurrence.

About the middle of January it was announced that the Premier was confined to his bed with a bronchial attack. He was well enough, however, a few days after to receive a deputation sent to elicit his opinion as to the extension of the county franchise, and to make a long speech in reply, the upshot of which was that he did not consider the country yet ripe for the proposed reform; but which, at the same time, indirectly conveyed, as many thought, the indications of his sympathy with the principle of the measure.

The effect was like that of a thunderbolt falling from a calm empyrean, when, on the 24th, a long manifesto appeared in the public papers, signed with the Minister's name and addressed to his constituents at Greenwich, announcing that the present Parliament was to be dissolved, and a new one summoned to meet without delay. The reasons for this most unexpected proceeding were thus touched upon:—

“In the month of March last the Government were defeated in their effort to settle upon just and enlarged principles the long disputed question of the higher education in Ireland, if not by a combined, yet by a concurrent, effort of the leader of the Opposition and of the Roman Catholic prelatry of Ireland. Upon suffering this defeat, the Government, according to the practice of our Constitution, placed their resignations in the hands of the Sovereign. Her Majesty, in the just and wise exercise of her high office, applied to the leader of the Opposition. He, however, declaring that he was not prepared with a policy, and could not govern in the existing Parliament, declined to fill the void which he had made. Under these circumstances, we thought ourselves bound by loyalty to the Queen not to decline the resumption of our offices. But this step we took with an avowed reluctance. We felt that, in consequence of what had happened, both the Crown and country were placed at a disadvantage, as it was established that, during the existence of the present Parliament,

one party only could govern, and must, therefore, govern without appeal. We also felt that a precedent had been set, which both diminished our strength and weakened the general guarantees for the responsibility and integrity of Parliamentary opposition.

"Of this diminution of strength we were painfully and sensibly reminded during the Session by the summary and rapid dismissal, in the House of Lords, of measures which had cost much time and labour to the House of Commons.

"But we remembered that in the years 1868 and 1870, when the mind of the country was unambiguously expressed, the House of Lords had, much to its honour, deferred to that expression upon matters of great moment; and I cannot doubt that it would have continued in this course, had the isolated and less certain, but still frequent and fresh, indications of public opinion at single elections continued to be in harmony with the powerful and authentic, but now more remote, judgment of 1868.

"This state of things, which was not satisfactory at the close of the last Session, and which has not admitted of remedy by the method of resignation and a change of Government, has not improved during the recess, especially the latter part of the recess; and the time has now arrived when the Administration, able to anticipate and survey the principal parts and the general character of the work which awaits it, has been called on to consider whether it could reasonably undertake such work without a fresh access of strength, and to frame its advice to Her Majesty accordingly.

"The question whether Ministers ought to retain or to abandon office should be decided by a general election, with the opportunity which it affords for broad declarations of policy and issues truly national, and cannot be satisfactorily solved by isolated contests, of which the issue is in a greater degree dependent on close discipline and finished and concentrated organisation.

"From a state of things thus fitful and casual, we desire to pass to one in which the nation will have had full opportunity of expressing will and choice as between the political parties. The Government of the day, whatever it be, will be aimed with its just means of authority both within and without the Legislature. The Opposition will enjoy the power, and doubtless will not shrink from the duty, of taking office. The House of Commons will be reinstated in its full possession of Constitutional authority, and when it shall see cause to withdraw its confidence from an Administration, it will not leave the Sovereign without resource."

After reviewing the acts of the late Ministry, and claiming credit to it for the measures it had passed, Mr. Gladstone then dexterously threw out his bait for a renewal of confidence, in the shape of a diminution of local taxation and of an intended total repeal of the Income Tax, for which the surplus he should have to show of four millions, would afford justification. He said: "In 1842 the Income Tax was employed by Sir Robert Peel partly to cover a serious deficit in the revenue, but principally to allow of

important advances in the direction of free trade. I need not dwell on the great work of liberation which has been accomplished by its aid. Mainly perhaps on this account, it has been borne with an exemplary patience. But no Government has ever been able to make it perpetual, like our taxes in general, or even to obtain its renewal for any very long term of years. Since 1860 it has been granted by an annual Act. During a long time, for reasons on which it is not necessary for me here to dwell, the country cherished, together with the desire, the expectation or hope of its extinction. But the sum annually drawn from it formed so heavy an item in the accounts from year to year, that it appeared to have grown unmanageable. It has, however, been the happy fortune of Mr. Lowe to bring it down, first from 6*l.* to 4*l.*, and then from 4*l.* to 3*l.* in the pound. The proceeds of the Income Tax for the present year are expected to be between 5,000,000*l.* and 6,000,000*l.*, and at a sacrifice for the financial year of something less than 5,500,000*l.* the country may enjoy the advantage and relief of its total repeal.

“I do not hesitate to affirm that an effort should now be made to attain this advantage, nor to declare that, according to my judgment, it is in present circumstances practicable.

“And yet, while making this recommendation and avowal, I have more to add. It will have been observed that the proposals I have mentioned contemplate principally the relief of rateable and other property, although there are many among the payers of Income Tax the association of whom with that term seems almost to mock them. But it is manifest that we ought not to aid the rates, and remove the Income Tax, without giving to the general consumer, and giving him simultaneously, some marked relief in the class of articles of popular consumption.

“It may be observed that the changes I have indicated would dispose of more, indeed considerably more, than the surplus I have named; and that I am not entitled to anticipate any larger balance of available revenue during the coming financial year from the present sources as they are fixed by law. But I have said nothing to preclude the Government from asking Parliament to consider, in conjunction with those great remissions, what moderate assistance could be had from judicious adjustments of existing taxes. And it is scarcely necessary for me to add that, admitting, as I do admit, the declarations of 1868, I for one could not belong to a Government which did not on every occasion seek to enlarge its resources by a wise economy. But these, I admit, are general declarations. Their whole value depends upon their future and practical development. On this subject I will frankly allow that the question is for the moment one of confidence. The policy of the Government for the last five years in particular, the character and opinions of my colleagues, and the financial and commercial legislation with which I may say that, since 1842, I have been associated, are before you. I can only

add that I have not spoken lightly, but deliberately, and with full persuasion."

At the conclusion of his address he thus summed up the merits of the Liberal party in general:—

"It is sometimes said, gentlemen, that we of the Liberal Government and party have endangered the institutions and worried all the interests of the country. As to the interests, I am aware of no one of them that we have injured. If we have unhappily offended any, it has been neither our intention nor our wish, but the consequence of our anxiety to consult the highest interest of all, in which all others are involved—the interest of the nation.

"As to the institutions of the country, gentlemen, the charge is the very same that you have been accustomed to hear urged against Liberal Governments in general for the last forty years. It is time to test by a general survey of the past this trite and vague allegation. Now, there has elapsed a period of forty, or more exactly forty-three years since the Liberal party acquired the main direction of public affairs. This followed another period of about forty years, beginning with the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, during which there had been an almost unbroken rule of their opponents, who claimed, and were reputed to be the great preservers of the institutions of the country. But I ask you to judge the men by the general results. I fear we must admit that the term of forty years of Tory rule, which closed in 1830, and to which you are invited to return, left the institutions of the country weaker, aye, even in its peace and order less secure, than at the commencement of the period it had found them. I am confident that if now the present Government be dismissed from the service of their Gracious Mistress and of the country, the Liberal party, which they represent, may at least challenge contradiction when they say that their term of forty years leaves the Throne, the laws, and the institutions of the country not weaker, but stronger, than it found them."

The challenge for the national verdict thus impulsively thrown down was eagerly taken up by the rival party in the State. Mr. Disraeli immediately replied to Mr. Gladstone by issuing an address to the electors of the County of Buckingham, in which he did not scruple to resume the tone of flippant sarcasm characteristic of his famous letter to Lord Grey de Wilton on occasion of the late Bath election.

"The Prime Minister," said the Conservative chief, "has addressed to his constituents a prolix narrative, in which he mentions many of the questions that have occupied, or may occupy, public attention, but in which I find nothing definite as to the policy he would pursue, except this, that, having the prospect of a large surplus, he will, if retained in power, devote that surplus to the remission of taxation, which would be the course of any party or any Ministry. But what is remarkable in his proposals is that,

on the one hand, they are accompanied by the disquieting information that the surplus, in order to make it adequate, must be enlarged by an 'adjustment,' which must mean an increase of existing taxes, and that, on the other hand, his principal measures of relief will be the diminution of local taxation and the abolition of the Income Tax—measures which the Conservative party have always favoured and which the Prime Minister and his friends have always opposed.

"Gentlemen, I have ever endeavoured, and, if returned to Parliament, I shall, whether in or out of office, continue the endeavour, to propose or support all measures calculated to improve the condition of the people of this kingdom. But I do not think this great end is advanced by incessant and harassing legislation. The English people are governed by their customs as much as by their laws, and there is nothing they more dislike than unnecessary restraint and meddling interference in their affairs. Generally speaking, I should say of the Administration of the last five years that it would have been better for us all if there had been a little more energy in our foreign policy and a little less in our domestic legislation.

"By an act of folly or of ignorance rarely equalled, the present Ministry relinquished a Treaty which secured us the freedom of the Straits of Malacca for our trade with China and Japan, and they, at the same time, entering on the West Coast of Africa into those 'equivocal and entangling engagements' which the Prime Minister now deprecates, involved us in the Ashantee War. The honour of the country now requires that we should prosecute that war with the vigour necessary to ensure success; but when that honour is vindicated, it will be the duty of Parliament to inquire by what means we were led into a costly and destructive contest which neither Parliament nor the country has ever sanctioned, and of the necessity or justice of which, in its origin, they have not been made aware.

"The question of a further reform of the House of Commons is again suggested by the Prime Minister, I think unwisely. The argument for extending to the counties the household franchise of the towns on the ground of the existing system being anomalous is itself fallacious.

"There has always been a difference between the franchises of the two divisions of the country, and no one has argued more strongly than the present Prime Minister against the contemplated identity of suffrage. The Conservative party view this question without prejudice. They have proved that they are not afraid of popular rights. But the late Reform Act was a large measure, which, in conjunction with the Ballot, has scarcely been tested by experience, and they will hesitate before they sanction further legislation, which will inevitably involve, among other considerable changes, the disfranchisement of at least all boroughs in the kingdom comprising less than 40,000 inhabitants.

"Gentlemen, the impending general election is one of no mean importance for the future character of this kingdom. There is reason to hope, from the address of the Prime Minister, putting aside some ominous suggestions which it contains as to the expediency of a local and subordinate Legislature, that he is not, certainly at present, opposed to our national institutions or to the maintenance of the integrity of the Empire. But, unfortunately, among his adherents some assail the Monarchy, others impugn the independence of the House of Lords, while there are those who would relieve Parliament altogether from any share in the government of one portion of the United Kingdom. Others, again, urge him to pursue his peculiar policy by disestablishing the Anglican as he has despoiled the Irish Church; while trusted colleagues in his Cabinet openly concur with them in their desire altogether to thrust religion from the place which it ought to occupy in national education.

"These, gentlemen, are solemn issues, and the impending general election must decide them. Their solution must be arrived at when Europe is more deeply stirred than at any period since the Reformation, and when the cause of civil liberty and religious freedom mainly depends upon the strength and stability of England. I ask you to return me to the House of Commons to resist every proposal which may impair that strength and to support by every means her Imperial sway."

The passage about the Straits of Malacca in Mr. Disraeli's address gave rise to a little controversial byplay which relieved the severity of the head and front attack; in a subsequent speech to his constituents, Mr. Gladstone seized upon it for pointed criticism:—

"Mr. Disraeli has taken you to a very distant region, to the Straits of Malacca, and he says that we have committed an astonishing piece of folly, and have compromised the freedom of passage for our trade to China and Japan. Now, I must detain you a few minutes upon this. The transaction was in the year 1871; yet Mr. Disraeli sat still in the House of Commons during the sessions of 1872 and 1873, and entirely forgot his duty to the Straits of Malacca. What has happened to rouse him from his insensibility? An article has been published in *Fraser's Magazine* which has greatly enlightened his mind. That article was written by a gentleman named Bowles, and I am greatly mistaken if Mr. Disraeli does not find that he who plays at bowls must expect to meet with rubbers. Mr. Disraeli says that we had a Treaty securing the freedom of the Straits of Malacca for our trade with China and Japan. We had no such Treaty. We had a Treaty with Holland which gave England the exclusive jurisdiction on the Malay continent, and which gave to Holland a similar exclusive title to frame treaties and make her own arrangements in the Island of Sumatra, which forms the other side of the Straits of Malacca, and in all the neighbouring islands, but that gave no security whatever for the free navigation of the Straits of Malacca.

The Treaty was made in 1834, and I am not now going to discuss it. But if there is danger to the Straits of Malacca of stopping freedom of navigation, that danger accrues where the Strait is narrowest, because it is there evidently that interruption will be offered to the navigation. The Strait is narrowest at the part of Sumatra which is occupied by the kingdom of Siak. The Dutch made a Treaty some years ago by which they acquired almost a sovereignty, or virtual supremacy, in that kingdom. Then was the time of danger, if any. And when was that Treaty made? It was made in 1868, when Mr. Disraeli was in office. It was forwarded by the Dutch Minister to Lord Malmesbury on September 21, 1868, and on September 23 Lord Malmesbury acknowledged the receipt, and returned his thanks for the Treaty."

Mr. Disraeli was not slack to reply. Addressing his constituents on the 31st, he declared Mr. Gladstone's statements to have been grossly inaccurate. "What on earth," he asked, "has England to do with any Treaty between the Dutch Government and the King of Siak? We had no more power to prevent it than to prevent the transit of Venus. Mr. Gladstone made a charge against the late Government in distinct language, and a most serious one. He said this Treaty that we had made with the Dutch, by which we had relinquished all security for the independence of the Straits of Malacca, and which led indirectly to the Ashantee War, was negotiated by the very Government over which Mr. Disraeli himself presided. It was the act of Lord Derby himself, under my sanction and my advice. I have to give to that statement of Mr. Gladstone an absolute and unequivocal denial. Something did occur on the subject of the Straits when we were in office, and the conduct of the Government over which I presided was exactly the reverse of that which Mr. Gladstone alleges against us."

But Mr. Gladstone rallied again to the charge when next addressing his constituents in the third and last of those marvellous feats of rhetoric which signalled his new candidature for their suffrages.

"I found," he said, "in the address of Mr. Disraeli, a statement that we had surrendered control over the Straits of Malacca. If you will turn to the map you will find that the kingdom of Acheen is separated by little short of 200 miles from the other side of the water. Do you call a sea of 150 or 200 miles broad 'Straits?' I should like to know what Straits in the world are 150 miles broad. The real Straits of Malacca are but twenty or thirty miles broad. 'But, no,' says Mr. Disraeli, 'the Straits of Malacca are between Acheen and the continent, where the sea is 150 miles wide.' Now, I ask, is it not reasonable, when I found him complaining that we had abandoned the Straits of Malacca, that I, in examining the case, instead of saying what we had done with respect to the part 150 miles broad, should look to the part which was twenty miles broad, and which I really thought to be the Straits? But Mr. Disraeli—I have no doubt quite unin-

tionally—has fallen into a sad error, which I will endeavour to expose. The narrow part of the Straits in the Island of Sumatra is bordered by the kingdom of Siak. It was with regard to Siak I stated that Lord Malmesbury had accepted with thanks the Treaty transmitted by the Dutch announcing that they had assumed the control of Siak. I stated also that the kingdom of Siak was the part of Sumatra which was important with respect to the Straits.’

Meanwhile, the financial “bid” on the part of the rival political leaders was far more important than their controversy about the Straits of Malacca. Mr. Disraeli did not compete with his antagonist in offering a total repeal of the Income Tax, and in a speech at Newport Pagnell gave his reasons for objecting to the policy of such a measure.

“My views upon the Income Tax,” he said—“I think I may say the views of the Conservative party generally—are these. We look upon the Income Tax as essentially a temporary tax, to use the language of Mr. Gladstone, and essentially a war tax. But at the same time I acknowledge that there may be circumstances of grave import which may justify the imposition of an Income Tax for a great national purpose, such as the reform of a tariff, for which reasons Sir Robert Peel had recourse to it. If Mr. Gladstone asks me, ‘Are you prepared to repeal the Income Tax by means of imposing other taxes?’ I am bound to say it is not a policy that I should recommend. If you have deviated from the national system of this country, and instead of reserving the Income Tax merely for war, have it for other important purposes, the propriety of which I do not question—if you have brought it into your financial system as a powerful though temporary means—I think you must take the consequences of that, and you must relieve yourselves from it, and get rid of the burden with discretion and with prudence, and that you must do it as gradually as your surplus revenue permits you to do it, with a due consideration at the same time of all other claims upon that surplus; and, therefore, when I said in my address to you that the Conservative party favoured the repeal of the Income Tax, I said it, as all of you thoroughly understand, with a due deference, of course, to the circumstances and conditions of things, and did not mean for a moment to uphold a policy which, to relieve you of the Income Tax, would impose upon you taxes more grievous. Well, then, Mr. Gladstone says, in the third place, ‘Are you prepared to diminish the duties upon articles of general consumption?’ If there be a surplus which permits us to reduce duties upon articles of general consumption, I am for reducing duties on articles of general consumption. But I say so with this reservation—I think it would be most unwise, after all the reduction which has been made in articles of general consumption, to extinguish any source or branch of revenue which exists. I think that policy has been carried already to too great an extent. Let us first realise the surplus. Let the financial year be terminated. Let us see what

we have on hand, and let us distribute those means in a manner which we think most advantageous to the country."

The new elections took place without delay, and were over by the middle of February. It was the first general election that had taken place in England under the conditions of the Ballot; and on the whole it contradicted very satisfactorily the predictions of alarmists. A few riotous scenes indeed occurred. At Cudersford, in the Forest of Dean, the military and police had to interpose, and twenty arrests were made. In North Durham the excitement was considerable at several of the headquarters of voting. At Barnsley, in the South-West Riding, stones were thrown by the Radical mob, and much injury done to property. At Dudley the Riot Act had to be read; at Newcastle in Staffordshire, at Nottingham, and at several places in the "Black Country," violent occurrences took place. In Ireland, also, there were here and there some serious frays. Still these are tales which all general elections have had to recount, and, on the whole, the Ballot by no means proved itself the foe to order that its enemies had been wont to anticipate. Neither did it prove itself the friend to Liberalism which its advocates hoped it would be. On the contrary, the nation, called upon to carry out its wishes in a secret, irresponsible fashion, returned a majority of fifty for the Conservative party. The feeling varied very much in different regions. Durham County returned none but Liberal members; Essex and Suffolk none but Conservatives; Yorkshire, 22 Liberals and 16 Conservatives; Lancashire, 7 Liberals and 26 Conservatives; Middlesex, 8 Liberals and 10 Conservatives. Scotland remained true to her Liberal proclivities; Ireland was almost unanimously hearty in returning "Home Rulers" as her representatives. In the face of such a verdict there was but one course, so Mr. Gladstone considered, for Ministers to pursue; and accordingly on February 17 Mr. Gladstone went to Windsor and tendered his resignation and that of his colleagues to the Queen. The following day, Mr. Disraeli was summoned to the Royal presence, with orders to form a new Administration. When the negotiations were completed, the twelve members of the Conservative Cabinet stood thus:—

First Lord of the Treasury	Mr. Disraeli.
Lord Chancellor	Lord Cairns.
Lord President of the Council	The Duke of Richmond.
Lord Privy Seal	The Earl of Malmesbury.
Foreign Secretary	The Earl of Derby.
Secretary for India	The Marquis of Salisbury.
Colonial Secretary	The Earl of Carnarvon.
Secretary for War	Mr. Gathorne Hardy.
Home Department	Mr. R. A. Cross.
First Lord of the Admiralty	Mr. Ward Hunt.
Chancellor of the Exchequer	Sir Stafford Northcote.
Postmaster-General	Lord John Manners.

The only new name on the list was that of Mr. Cross. He was a Lancashire magistrate, and a friend of Lord Derby's; and Mr. Disraeli believed that he discovered in him the true material for statesmanship.

On their arrival at Windsor to receive the insignia of office the new Ministers were greeted with hearty cheers by the crowd. The acquiescence, or even satisfaction, with which the change of Government was accepted by the nation at large was not a little disappointing to Mr. Gladstone and the Liberal notabilities. In fact there can be no doubt that the author of the Irish Church and Land Acts, the destroyer of the Purchase System in the Army, the Minister under whom the Education and Ballot Acts had been passed, had calculated on the sympathy and admiration still felt for the "People's William," when he ventured on the hazardous step of a Dissolution. His followers could not readily forgive him for the rash act. Had he chosen to meet Parliament, they said, and, turning his thoughts from recent mortifications, brought forward his glowing Budget, a worthy monument of his known financial ability, with its tempting remissions of taxation, any temporary discontent would have vanished from the public mind, his actual majority in the House would have rallied round him, and his vessel would have been launched again on a favourable sea. To make such a venture as he had done when the tide of his popularity was at ebb was sure to produce fatal results.

When the House of Commons met for the choice of a Speaker, a month later than the date originally contemplated for the commencement of the Session, the aspect of the Assembly was new and strange. Liberals passed over to the Opposition benches; Conservatives took up their position on the right of the Speaker's chair. New faces appeared in numbers—rather more than two hundred of the whole number had not sat in the late Parliament—but the new leaders were absent. Mr. Disraeli was represented by Sir Percy Herbert. Mr. Gladstone was in the front of his own ranks, and was warmly received by his followers. Mr. Brand, the late Speaker, had given universal satisfaction by the way in which he had discharged his duties; and when he was installed in the chair again without any opposition, there was something of relief felt on both sides that the traditions of the past were not entirely broken off. After this preliminary meeting, Parliament had to adjourn for the re-election of the new Ministers by their several constituencies. On March 19 it met again, and was formally opened by Commission, the Lord Chancellor reading the Queen's Speech, which ran thus:—

"My Lords and Gentlemen,—

"I recur to your advice at the earliest period permitted by the arrangements consequent on the retirement of the late Administration.

"My relations with all foreign Powers continue to be most friendly. I shall not fail to exercise the influence arising from

these cordial relations for the maintenance of European peace, and the faithful observance of international obligations.

“The marriage of my son, the Duke of Edinburgh, with the Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrovna of Russia, is at once a source of happiness to myself and a pledge of friendship between two great empires.

“The war with the King of Ashantee has terminated in the capture and destruction of his capital, and in negotiations which I trust may lead to a more satisfactory condition of affairs than has hitherto prevailed on the West Coast of Africa.

“The courage, discipline, and endurance displayed by my forces, both of the land and sea service, together with the energy and skill evinced in the conduct of the expedition, have brilliantly maintained, under the most trying circumstances, the traditional reputation of the British arms.

“I deeply regret that the drought of last summer has affected the most populous provinces of my Indian Empire, and has produced extreme scarcity, in some parts amounting to actual famine, over an area inhabited by many millions. I have directed the Governor-General of India to spare no cost in striving to mitigate this terrible calamity.

“*Gentlemen of the House of Commons,*—

“The Estimates for the expenditure of the coming financial year will be forthwith submitted to you.

“*My Lords and Gentlemen,*—

“The delay and expense attending the transfer of land in England have long been felt to be a reproach to our system of law, and a serious obstacle to dealings in real property. This subject has, in former Sessions, occupied the attention of Parliament, and I trust that the measures which will now be submitted for your consideration will be found calculated to remove much of the evil of which complaint has been made.

“You will probably be of opinion that the rearrangement of the judicature, and the blending of the administration of law and equity, which were effected for England by the enactment of last Session, ought, on the same principles, to be extended to Ireland, and you will be asked to devote some part of your time to the accomplishment of this object.

“The greater part of these changes would be inapplicable to the tribunals of Scotland; but you will be invited, as to that part of my kingdom, to consider the most satisfactory mode of bringing the procedure upon appeals into harmony with recent legislation: and, among other measures relating to her special interests, a Bill for amending the law relating to land rights and for facilitating the transfer of land will be laid before you.

“Serious differences have arisen, and remonstrances have been made by large classes of the community, as to the working of the recent Act of Parliament affecting the relationship of master and servant, of the Act of 1871, which deals with offences connected

with trade, and of the law of conspiracy, more especially as connected with these offences. On these subjects I am desirous that, before attempting any fresh legislation, you should be in possession of all material facts, and of the precise questions in controversy, and for this purpose I have issued a Royal Commission to inquire into the state and working of the present law with a view to its early amendment, if it should be found necessary.

“A Bill will be introduced dealing with such parts of the Acts regulating the sale of intoxicating liquors as have given rise to complaints which appear to deserve the interference of Parliament.

“Your attention will also be directed to the laws affecting friendly and provident societies.

“All these matters will require your grave consideration, and I pray that the Almighty may guide your deliberations for the welfare of my realm.”

The Address was moved and seconded in the House of Lords by Lord Lothian and Lord Cadogan; in the House of Commons by Sir William Maxwell and Mr. Callender. Mr. Torrens proposed an amendment suggesting the desirableness of taking special measures to meet the Indian Famine; but Mr. Gladstone considered that no such addition was necessary to the terms of the Royal speech, and the motion was withdrawn.

Replying to certain strictures of the Address on the conduct of the late Government in dissolving Parliament, Mr. Gladstone remarked that the simple possession of a Parliamentary majority did not in his opinion betoken absolute confidence in a Government, and would not justify it in remaining in office until the natural expiration of Parliament. He owned that the stream of success obtained by the Opposition at individual elections had led him to the conclusion that it would not be desirable to prolong the existence of the former Parliament. He admitted that the verdict of the country had been pronounced in no uncertain manner, and, without adverting to the combinations which had brought it about, he did not regret the dissolution by which it had been evoked, if thereby an opportunity had been given to the people to express their opinion upon the conduct of public affairs and upon those who ought to direct them in the future. The transfer of power was made under conditions favourable to the late Government. The majority of the constituencies had, however, rejected their proposals, and as this was the act of the country the new Government was entitled to a fair trial and open space for the development of their plans and the application of their principles. If, in the fulness of time, the country should be of opinion that on the whole those principles were not desirable, Constitutional means would no doubt be found to effect another change.

Another amendment to the Address was moved on the following day by Mr. Butt, on behalf of the Home Rule policy for Ireland. Mr. Gladstone spoke in opposition to it, though, as to its principle, evasively; making it his objection that the motion

had come by surprise upon the House, and urging that the proper course for the Irish members to adopt would be to bring in measures directed to remedy the particular grievances of which they complained. On a division Mr. Butt's amendment was rejected by 314 votes to 50.

The interest and commiseration excited in the English public at this time by the accounts of the increasing famine in India, were testified by numerous meetings, held all over the country, for the purpose of raising voluntary contributions in aid of the sufferers. The initiation was made at the Mansion House, on February 10, the Lord Mayor putting himself in front of the movement; 3,000*l.* was subscribed at once. By the middle of March the Mansion House Fund had reached 45,000*l.* At the winding-up meeting, in November, which was the twenty-third in number, the total sum raised at the Mansion House was stated at just under 130,000*l.*

Lord Lawrence took up the subject with much earnestness. In giving the results of his own observation, during the long experience of his Indian career, he expressed his approbation of the labour test as the best means of ascertaining the cases where relief was really needed, and he advised that the disposal of the funds raised by voluntary contributions should be entirely trusted to the Viceroy.

When Parliament met for business, the Bengal famine was the first topic that invited serious discussion. The Marquis of Salisbury introduced it into the Upper House, asking for powers to raise a loan of ten millions, to meet the present emergency; proposing also to charter a certain number of steamers for transporting food, and to create new means of communication and works of irrigation as helps against a recurrence of the calamity. In the Commons, the House having resolved itself into Committee, Lord George Hamilton, the new Under-Secretary for India—a young man selected by Mr. Disraeli to be one of his rising statesmen—made an elaborate statement of the condition of the famine districts, and the measures which had been taken to meet the distress. Both speakers gave as hearty support to the policy pursued by Lord Northbrook as if that nobleman had been a Viceroy appointed by the Conservative and not the Liberal Government; and, in particular, they refused to blame his determination not to let the exports of rice from India be interfered with, a determination which the press of Calcutta, and Sir George Campbell, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, had directed all their influence to oppose; and in respect to which the powerful aid of the *Times* newspaper had been lately given in support of the Lieutenant-Governor's sentiments. In fact, it was not one of the least of Lord Northbrook's difficulties at this time that some of his Indian officials were working against him in this important matter; and the hearty support he met with from the new Government at home was a circumstance that greatly aided the final triumph

of his efforts. We quote some passages from Lord Salisbury's speech :—

“I think the main controversy carried on with respect to the Viceroy's policy is as to the expediency or otherwise of arresting the export of grain by an act of executive power. As to this policy, it may be impugned under two heads. You may look at it as a mere question of finance, and consider whether the course taken was the cheapest that could have been taken ; or you may look at it in a more important light, as part of the machinery of dealing with the famine, and inquire whether the Viceroy's policy has imperilled the supply which could have been brought to the homes of the starving population. Only in the latter light can the question be looked at as very serious. As a question of finance, as to whether it would be cheaper to buy grain before it went to Calcutta, rather than procure it as imported at other ports, I do not think it necessary to trouble your lordships, because the point is one on which different opinions may naturally be held, and it is one of which the pecuniary importance is not very great. But as to the far more important question whether the Viceroy, by not arresting the export of grain, has imperilled the supply for the people in the distressed districts, I think there is one thing that has been forgotten. It is that the grain which has been exported has not been exported from the districts which are suffering. It is true that grain has been exported from Bengal, but there is a large surplus crop in some parts of Bengal, and the difficulty has been, not to procure grain, but to bring the supplies to the homes of the starving population. No grain to speak of has been exported from Northern India. Our difficulty is to get the grain up there. What advantage, then, would it be to stop the export of grain from other parts of Bengal when the difficulty is to convey it from the stations of Eastern India to the place where it is wanted ? Therefore, I don't think this question has so important a bearing as is generally supposed on the difficulties with which the Government had to deal. For present purposes the supply of grain is abundant, and the difficulty is one of carriage. Then, it must be remembered that while you would not have appreciably relieved your embarrassments by stopping the export of grain, you might have incurred considerable danger by such a policy, because the one terror which appears to have been before the Viceroy's eyes was lest he should paralyse the operations of private trade. If he had taken so violent a measure private traders would have been seized with a panic, and would have abandoned the idea of attempting of themselves to convey grain into these parts of the country, and the result would be that the real famine would be aggravated by an artificial one. At the beginning of the famine the Commissioner at Patna proposed to traders to take up grain to those districts. The reply was that they were not accustomed to it, and did not understand it. They were accustomed only to export. I understand, however, that since then confidence

in the prospects of such a trade has changed their feeling, and, as I have been informed, the private traders are carrying their stores to those districts, and that grain is by those means pouring into the distressed districts at a greater rate than that which is carried up by public agency, and amounts to more than 2,000 tons a day. So much for the more serious question. As to the question of economy, I will not discuss it; but there is another part of the Viceroy's conduct which has been questioned, and, as I think, inconsiderately. I mean his conduct with regard to the labour test. It has been supposed by some that this test is to be applied to persons unaccustomed to labour, and to persons too exhausted to labour; and it has also been said that persons of education would be driven to undergo that degradation before obtaining relief. Now, I have here the Minute of the Viceroy on that point. It is among the papers which I will lay on the table. It bears date February 13, and I find in it this passage:—

“In connection with this subject, I am to observe that where distress, as is the case there, arises from a general deficiency of the food supply of a large area of country, which deficiency cannot be met by private traders, stringent labour tests are not applicable. The labour test was tried during the earlier portion of the Irish famine; it failed, and ultimately gratuitous distribution of cooked food was substituted. It was under the latter system, coupled with the sale of grain at market rates by Government, where private traders could not supply it, that the Irish famine was at last successfully dealt with. The circumstances in India are not entirely similar, but it appears to his Excellency that, where they differ, the difference would point to an extension of the system of gratuitous distribution of food, and especially to the establishment of a system of advancing supplies of food to cultivators. When distress extends to whole classes of the population, his Excellency relies upon the local knowledge of the persons entrusted with the distribution of relief to prevent abuses.’ My lords, I think the extract I have read shows that the Viceroy restricts the labour test within the narrowest limits, and only applies it where it can be legitimately applied. My lords, there is another point upon which it appears to me there is more to be said. I refer to the question of dilatoriness in the preparations for the transport of food. I think there can be very little doubt—indeed, he himself admits it—that these preparations have been in arrear, and that whatever misery there has been may be attributed in some degree to that arrear. I think, however, that we are accustomed to exaggerate the arrears which have occurred. I have heard and read of estimates of many hundreds of lives having been sacrificed, and language even stronger than that has been used. I can only say that if there has been any such sacrifice we are not aware of it at the India Office. We believe the mortality has been confined to a very few cases. That there has been suffering and distress cannot be doubted, and I am afraid there is disease; but the mor-

tality has been limited, and whatever suffering there has been has resulted from the arrears in the preparations. Now, what did the Viceroy do? In the first place, we must remember that for a long time it was uncertain whether there would be a famine, and, if there were, where it would strike. It was known in October that there would be a scarcity, but until the rains had fallen in January there could have been no accurate opinion formed as to what would occur. It might be that the danger of famine would altogether pass away, or it might be that the famine would extend over a country inhabited by 30 millions of people. It has been limited in its severity to a country inhabited by seven or eight millions of people, and the number who will be on the hands of the Government when the famine is at its worst will amount to certainly three millions. But the exact locality of the distress could not have been ascertained till the season had advanced, and therefore the providing the means of transport was delayed to a later period than at first sight might appear to have been desirable. But I admit, and the Viceroy admits, that the preparations were not as far advanced as they might have been. But, as showing that the subject had not escaped the notice of the Viceroy, I may read this passage from one of the Minutes:—

“These documents have been laid before the Government of India, and the Governor-General in Council cannot but express the disappointment which he feels at the local officers having for so long neglected fully to appreciate the requirements of those parts of the country, and thereby occasioned the postponement to the present time of arrangements for transport which should have been made many weeks ago.”

“My lords, it appears to be a law of nature that the official mind can never readily conceive that the machinery with which it has to deal can go wrong, and I am afraid that the officials of India are not exempt from that law. There was a terrible exemplification of that in Orissa, where we had, indeed, a terrible mortality resulting from the inability of officials to see that the ordinary routine would not suffice to avert an extraordinary calamity; but I cannot think that in the present case the local officers, who are both the eyes and the hands of the Viceroy, will indulge in such sanguine anticipations as those which delayed and prevented the preparations in Orissa. I trust and believe that no very serious injury has arisen from the delay in this case; but, even had very much more serious injury resulted from it, I don't think you could have blamed the Viceroy, because he was unable to supplement from his own knowledge the information sent to him by those on whom he depended. That is what I have to say with reference to the past policy of the Viceroy; but I should not be doing justice to my own feelings if I did not say how much reason we have to be grateful for his exertions, and how much reason we have to admire the vigour, judgment, and self-denial with which he has applied himself to the tremendous responsibility.

All of us on this side of the House always admired his ability; but we had no notion how his powers would expand under the pressure of responsibility until we saw the measures he had adopted and the conduct he had pursued in the terrible position in which he found himself placed by this famine. My lords, we have every reason to repose confidence in him, and I have no doubt that at the end of the year he will have the satisfaction of feeling that millions of human beings owe their lives to his exertions." Lord Salisbury then gave indication of a measure which he brought before Parliament later in the Session. . . . "My lords, I cannot say that I consider the position of public works in India satisfactory. There have been too many disappointments as to the accuracy of estimates to permit of our regarding them as satisfactory. I think it is not impossible that later in the Session I may ask your lordships to give your consent to some scheme for a more organised and systematic supervision of those works. In the meantime I beg to assure your lordships that neither the Government of India nor the Government at home are at all unaware of the extreme necessity of carrying out in all districts where they can see any prospect of remunerative return those works of irrigation which are the very life of India. Those are the observations which I thought it necessary for me to make. I was anxious to vindicate the policy of the Government of India in some respects in which I thought it might be misunderstood. In conclusion I may venture to assure your lordships that nothing that activity in preparation or abundance of provisions can secure shall be neglected, so far as we and so far as the Government of India are concerned, in order that this terrible famine, which may last till September, may be kept within bounds, and the people of Bengal be preserved from distress and suffering."

Lord George Hamilton, in the Commons likewise, in a speech which dealt exhaustively with the facts of the case, testified to the personal courage and resolution exhibited by the Viceroy during the trying emergency, and declared that those who blamed Lord Northbrook for not prohibiting exports did not seem to appreciate the first principles on which he acted. He went further, and ventured to say that no one placed in Lord Northbrook's critical and exceptional position could well have acted otherwise; and as the result, he said, and the best justification of the measure, "we have at the present moment grain pouring in from the North-West Provinces, mainly through private trade, at the rate of 1,500 tons per diem."

With regard to the amount of the loan, to raise which, powers were now asked—ten millions—that, said Lord George, was no doubt vastly beyond the estimate made in India of the sum required for present needs.

"The expenditure for the famine up to the end of February had been about 2,500,000*l.* *Sir G. Campbell, in his estimates—which would shortly be before the House—calculated that the total

amount incurred in relieving the distress and in starting relief works during that famine would be 6,295,000*l.*, but of that sum but 1,900,000*l.* was expected to be refunded, and speaking roughly it was estimated that the total expenditure would not be less than 4,500,000*l.* Although they hoped it might not be necessary for them to raise more than the three millions, which would be the amount by which they were originally requested to reduce their monthly drafts—viz., 250,000*l.* per month—still the Secretary of State in Council deemed it absolutely essential to ask for larger powers, and for this reason: it was impossible to foretell what would be the condition of the great winter crops this year. Parliament would in all probability be up at the end of July. They would receive no accurate information very likely till late in October. Those who had experience of the East knew that local famines frequently lasted more than one year, and he would point out to the House what a terrible position they would be placed in if they merely asked for power to borrow three millions, the amount by which Lord Northbrook requested them to diminish their drafts, and when Parliament was prorogued should receive intelligence from India that there was every probability of a perhaps even more dreadful famine lasting during the winter months, without having the power of raising the necessary money to meet such an emergency. Proposals had been made, both in public and in private, by which it was insinuated that it would have been a better course if the English Government had undertaken to guarantee any loan which they might propose to raise; but he thought that anybody who considered the matter would see that it would confer very little present advantage, while unquestionably it would deteriorate their financial character morally, and ultimately India would have to pay dearly for the English guarantee."

The Bill authorising the loan was introduced, and read a first time.

The month of March was signalised by two national events unconnected with politics, which caused the capital to put on its holiday airs of rejoicing. One was the arrival of the Duke of Edinburgh and his Russian bride; the other was the return of the troops lately engaged in the Ashantee War.

The marriage arranged during the course of the previous year between the second son of Queen Victoria and the only daughter of the Russian Czar, was solemnised at St. Petersburg in the month of January, and will be found chronicled more at length in our survey of Foreign History. After stopping at some of the continental cities on their way to England, the princely pair disembarked at Gravesend on March 7, from thence went to Windsor, where they were received by the Queen, and on March 12 made their public entry into London. The weather, which had been spring-like on their first landing, had turned to wintry cold; and on the day of the public entry, when London was crowding out on pavements, and benches, and balconies, to greet them, snow fell in

thick and rapid flakes, as though to do appropriate homage to the bride from the hyperborean regions. Nevertheless, through it all, at leisurely pace, in an open carriage, unprotected in any way from the weather, came with smiling faces the English Queen and her youthful daughter-in-law, the bridegroom seated opposite to them in naval uniform. The procession was nearly a mile long, and was unusually military in its appearance. This was the first time an alliance had ever been formed between the royal houses of Russia and England. Of late the Government of the Czar had not been popular in our country. The advance of Russian power in Asia, and the astute manner in which Prince Gortschakoff had managed to dispose of the Black Sea Treaty, had created fears and jealousies ready enough at all times to find entrance into the British mind. But in the enthusiasm of the people for all that concerned the private happiness of the Royal Family, political grudges were now forgotten, and Princess Marie Alexandrovna was welcomed as cordially as if no national interests could ever conflict with dynastic ties. It was the first time too, since the Settlement Act, that a British Prince had married a Princess belonging to any other than a Protestant Communion; but the Greek Church had not been mentioned in bar of succession when the Act was made; and no objection was in the present instance raised to the Czar's daughter retaining her old ecclesiastical allegiance when she became Duchess of Edinburgh, or to the marriage ceremonial being celebrated at St. Petersburg with Oriental as well as Anglican rites.

A week after this metropolitan show the first instalment of the Ashantee troops was landed at Spithead from the "Tamar." The next day Sir Garnet Wolseley and his staff reached Portsmouth in the "Manitoba." From Portsmouth the General hastened to London, and paid his respects to the Queen at Windsor on Sunday, the 22nd. Eight days afterwards Her Majesty held a review of the returned troops in Windsor Park; for an account of which we refer our readers to the Chronicle. On the same evening a vote of thanks to the forces was passed in both Houses.

The favourable result of the Ashantee War had come opportunely to gild the dawn of the new Government. Its ominous aspect at the beginning of the year had—unfairly as it turned out—helped to discredit the old one. When Mr. Disraeli, in his speech on the vote of thanks, praised Sir Garnet Wolseley at the expense of the home authorities, who, he said, had intended—till the General himself remonstrated—to carry on the war by means of native levies only, Mr. Gladstone denied the statement. On the contrary, he said, when General Wolseley was sent out, at a time when our information was deplorably scanty, the regiments were told off for service and the transports were prepared, to be ready if he should require them: there never was a case in which a plan of campaign had been so completely laid out beforehand, or in which the execution had so closely corresponded with the design.

This will be the fittest place in which to continue the narrative of the war itself, which was commenced in the concluding chapter of our survey of English History for last year.

At the beginning of December 1873, the troopships "Sarmatian," "Himalaya," "Tamar," and "Thames," arrived on the Gold Coast with the regiments for which Sir Garnet Wolseley had been waiting to undertake offensive operations—viz., the 42nd Highlanders, or "Black Watch," the 23rd Welsh Fusiliers, some volunteers of the 79th Regiment, a battalion of Marines, and the 1st West India Regiment. But it was a month before they landed; this delay being occasioned by the want of sufficient transport service for the march inland, and the danger of allowing the men to risk the influences of the climate before they could be got ready for the start. Had these regiments been landed in November, when the Ashantee force was near the coast, no doubt the decisive blow might have been struck there and then, and the war been at once brought to an end; but the real state of things was not known to the English then, and meanwhile the army of Koffee Kallli had been able to retreat across the Prah. It now behoved the British commander to make straight for his capital, Coomassie, and after striking him there, get back to the coast with all his men by the end of February—otherwise the swelling of the floods in the rainy season and the ravages of the fever fiend would be sure to make more deadly havoc than Ashantee weapons.

On December 23 Sir Garnet Wolseley issued an order, containing general instructions to the troops. After giving careful directions as to the best means of preserving health, he said:—"The theatre of operations will be a great forest of gigantic trees, with an undergrowth of bush, varying in thickness. At some places men can get through the bush in skirmishing order, at others they will have to use their sword-bayonets to open paths for themselves. All the fighting will be in skirmishing order, the files being two, three, or four paces apart, according to circumstances." When once thus engaged in a fight in the bush, officers commanding battalions, and even officers commanding companies, will find it difficult to exercise much control over their men; for this reason it is essential that the tactical unit should be as small as possible; every company will therefore be at once divided into four sections, and each section will be placed under the command of an officer or non-commissioned officer. These sections, once told off, are not on any account to be broken up during the war. Fighting in the bush is very much like fighting by twilight. No one can see farther than a few files to his right or left. Great steadiness and self-confidence are, therefore, required from every one engaged. The Ashantees always employ the same tactics before superior numbers. They encircle their enemy's flank by long thin lines of skirmishers, hoping thereby to demoralise their opponents. Each soldier must remember that with his breech-loader he is equal to at least twenty Ashantees, wretchedly armed

as they are with old flint muskets, firing slugs or pieces of stone that do not hurt badly at more than forty or fifty yards' range. Our enemies have neither guns nor rockets, and have a superstitious dread of those used by us. If during the advance through the bush, fire is unexpectedly opened by the enemy concealed behind cover, the men will immediately drop on the knee behind trees or any cover that may be at hand, pausing well before delivering their fire, and taking care to fire low at the spot from which the enemy were seen to fire. When once a position has been gained it is to be held resolutely in warfare of this nature. There must be no retreats. No village or camp is to be set on fire except by order of the Major-general commanding; officers and men are reminded of the danger and delay which occur if a village is set on fire before all the ammunition and baggage have made their way through it. All plundering and unnecessary destruction of property are to be strictly repressed. Officers are to be strictly responsible that when a village or camp is occupied their men are kept together and prevented from dispersing to seek plunder. The importance of kindness from all ranks to the friendly natives who are employed as carriers cannot be too strongly urged; if the carriers are ill-treated, the troops run imminent risk of being left without food and ammunition. It must never be forgotten by our soldiers that Providence has implanted in the heart of every native of Africa a superstitious awe and dread of the white man that prevents the negro from daring to meet him face to face in combat. A steady advance or a charge, no matter how partial, if made with determination, always means the retreat of the enemy. Although when at a distance, and even when under a heavy fire, the Ashantees seem brave enough, from their practice of yelling and singing and beating drums in order to frighten the enemies of their own colour with whom they are accustomed to make war, they will not stand against the advance of the white man. English soldiers and sailors are accustomed to fight against immense odds in all parts of the world." It is scarcely necessary to remind them that when in our battles beyond the Prah they find themselves surrounded on all sides by hordes of howling enemies, they must rely upon their old British courage and discipline, and upon the courage of their comrades. Soldiers and sailors, remember that the black man holds you in superstitious awe. Be cool; fire low, fire slow, and charge home; and the more numerous your enemy, the greater will be the loss inflicted upon him, and the greater your honour in defeating him."

This was the plan of the campaign. The regiments were to begin their march on January 6, arrive in eight days' time at Prahsu, there concentrate, and on the 15th cross the Prah. On the same day that river was to be crossed also by Captains Glover and Butler with their native corps from the East, and by Captain Dalrymple with the Wassaws from the West. Eventually, how-

ever, this plan was only partially carried out. The missions of Butler and Dalrymple to Westassin and Wassaw to raise the additional native contingents proved unsuccessful.

The English vanguard consisted of native regiments led by Colonel Wood of the 90th Light Infantry, and by Major Russell, 13th Hussars. As these pressed onwards traces met them of the disasters which had attended the retreat of the Ashantees. The ground was strewn with bodies of poor wretches that had perished from sickness, and the signs of terror were visible in the trampled state of the long grass in many places, as from the footsteps of men in rapid flight. The deficiencies in the transport service caused an unwelcome delay in the advance of the invaders. Part of the 23rd Regiment was sent back to the coast, and some native regiments were withheld from further movement. A company of seventy scouts, picked men from the Kossohs, Bonny men, Houssas, Opobos, and West Indian negro regiments, were placed under the command of Lord Gifford, a gallant young officer of the 24th, who had volunteered for Ashantee service, with orders to push on and destroy the village of Essiaman, and ascertain the strength of the enemy. The River Prah is the boundary of the Ashantee Protectorate, but Ashantee proper begins at the Adansi Hills, and the invasion was not considered by the natives to have really begun until this barrier was passed. As Lord Gifford advanced towards the heights he found better built huts than in the Protectorate, and consequently better shelter for his troops. At Essiaman, one of the three stations which had to be passed before the foot of the Adansi was reached, he met with some resistance. A portion of the inhabitants had remained in the place, and they fought and wounded a few of his people. He took possession of the villages as he passed, and Russell and Wood, who followed him, strengthened their defences, and placed some troops to garrison them. Afterwards followed Major Home with the Engineers, who set to work at widening the roads and laying down bridges over the streams and causeways over the morasses. Lord Gifford with his seventy scouts reached the village station of Moinsee on January 16, and the following day began to ascend the woody side of the Adansi, 600 feet high. When he had got half way up the height he was met by an Ashantee priest in a singular costume, with several other priests and an old Fetish woman at his side. These all cried out with a solemn warning voice, "The stranger must come no further! Death stands on the path before him!" "A thousand Ashantee warriors," cried the old woman, "stand on the top of this sacred mountain!" and then they all waved their weapons in mystic circles. But the only answer of Gifford's scouts was a loud yell, and a rush up the hill with gleaming swords and guns, before which the priests vanished in the recesses of the wood. Arrived on the summit the advancing troops looked round in vain for any sign of human life. Half a mile onward the village of Ouisa, the first in Ashantee proper,

was reached: here a ghastly memento of recent habitation was seen in a mutilated corpse impaled as a sacrifice. In one place a fetish of wooden guns and daggers was stuck up; white fetish threads were stretched across the road; kids were found pierced through with stakes and buried in calabashes; these were understood by the initiated as serious portents of war. From Ouisa Lord Gifford advanced to Fommanah, the capital of the province of Adansi, which was also found destitute of inhabitants. Fommanah was the residence of the Prince of Adansi, and possessed a palace of some pretensions.

Sir Garnet Wolseley, with the Naval Brigade under Captain Blake, had arrived at Prahsu on January 2. Immediately on his arrival messengers appeared from King Koffee Calcalli with a letter from that monarch suing for peace. The General refused to see them, but he was not unwilling to enter into negotiations which might render the further prosecution of the war unnecessary. His policy was in the first place to impress upon the ambassadors the enormous strength of the invaders, so that they might represent to their sovereign the uselessness of resistance to whatever terms might be imposed upon him. The number of troops as yet arrived at Prahsu was but small. However, the Naval Brigade was a fine corps in itself, and the artillery batteries made a formidable display. Sir Garnet kept the envoys for some days, and made them witness the working of these engines. The practice of the Gatling gun frightened them especially, and one of them, on beholding it, observed to his comrades that it was useless to think of further resistance; and, on being threatened that such treasonable words should be reported to the King, shot himself in dismay. The General dismissed them with his ultimatum, conveyed in a letter to the King; which was, that the conditions of peace must be signed by the King and himself personally at Coomassie; meanwhile he intimated his intention of marching on that city from four sides at once.

On the return of the envoys on January 8, the King determined in his own mind to carry on the war, but he would attempt meanwhile to throw dust into the eyes of his invaders. For this end he sent for Mr. Kuhne, the missionary, who had been detained by him in captivity for four years and a half, but without ill-treatment. Mr. Kuhne found the King alone, dressed in a white cloth, and seated on a low stool playing with his cats. He was himself invested with a royal robe, such as is worn by the King's relatives, and presented with a gift of gold. He was then told that the King would send him to the English Governor-General to say that the King wanted peace; "he would not fight with the white men, even if they came into the market-place, for (with audacious forgetfulness of the wars of 1824 and 1826) his ancestors had never fought with the white man." Kuhne arrived at Prahsu on January 13, and delivered the King's letter, to which the General returned for answer that the European captives must be all

released, a war indemnity of 200,000*l.* sterling paid down, and a Treaty signed in presence of the British Army, whereby the English Protectorate and its Allies should be secured against future attack.

On January 24 Sir Garnet marched to Fommanah, and set up his head-quarters in the palace of the Prince of Adansi. Upon this, King Koffee set free three of the European captives whom he had had in duance for four years, the missionary Ramseyer and his wife, and the Frenchman Bonnat, as an earnest of his compliance with one at least of the General's conditions. Ramseyer was also to tell Sir Garnet that Amanquatia, the King's General, had been charged to pay the indemnity demanded, on condition that he, Sir Garnet, would not advance beyond Fommanah. The British General was deceived by these demonstrations, and sent a private telegram to England, announcing that the Ashantee War was at an end without further bloodshed. The telegram happened to be taken by an express steamer to Lisbon, and was therefore greeted by the English public with less confidence than if it had come direct. As it turned out, the news proved fallacious on other grounds.

The Missionaries had mentioned that in every house in Coomassie the slaves were busily employed in breaking up iron-stone for loading the Ashantee guns. Lord Gifford, reconnoitring in all directions, found that the villages on the direct route were strongly occupied by Ashantee troops, and the women and children removed from them. Major Russell, who had also advanced with his regiment, demanded that these villages should be evacuated, and, on his demand being disregarded, set fire to one of them, an act disapproved of by Sir Garnet Wolseley, who still cherished the idea that peace might ensue on the pending negotiations. But the signs of hostile intentions on the part of the Ashantees multiplied; and the tragic death of Colonel Nichol, who was shot while holding a parley before the village of Borborasi, left little doubt of their intentions. By the end of January it was announced to the British troops that negotiations were broken off. Amanquatia, the Ashantee General, had concentrated a force 20,000 strong, and taken up his position at Amoaful, twenty miles from Coomassie. His vanguard held the village of Agamassie, half a mile in front. Amoaful, a place of 2,000 inhabitants, stood in a clearing on the summit of a lofty hill. Agamassie stood on a lower eminence; between them was a marshy hollow, with a turbid stream running through it. The slopes of the two hills were covered with a very dense wood. This was the battle-field chosen by the Ashantee leaders. Their troops were armed with old-fashioned muskets, many of them French weapons used in the wars of Napoleon I., and sold by merchants at the coast trading stations. It took a long time to load them, and the fragments of iron-stone with which they were charged were not always destructive in their effect. The English army was only 3,000 strong; but then its

weapon was the formidable Snider, which dealt its message with unintermitting rapidity, and with deadly force.

On the morning of January 30, the English vanguard, consisting of Wood's and Russell's regiments, occupied Quarman, a village half a mile south of Agamassie. The same afternoon Major Home and the Engineers widened and levelled the road leading to that place, working with oiled saws, to make as little sound as possible. In the night Lord Gifford reconnoitred the enemy's position.

The main body of the English army was posted at Insarfu, four miles south from Quarman. It consisted of the 42nd Highlanders, under Major Duncan Macpherson, the Rifle Brigade, under Lieutenant-Colonel Warren, and 100 men of the 23rd Welsh Fusiliers, under Lieutenant-Colonel Mostyn. These troops together formed the "White Brigade," under the orders of Brigadier Sir Archibald Alison. Then came the Naval Brigade under Captain Grubbe, a company of the 2nd West Indians under Lieutenant Jones, and the Houssas under Captain Rait. General Wolseley foresaw that as soon as the small English force should reach Agamassie, it might, without due precaution being taken, be easily surrounded by the greatly superior forces of the enemy, who were lurking in the bush on every side. He therefore formed his troops into a square, so as to present a front each way and keep a space within free from intrusion. The plan of operation was as follows:—The 42nd Regiment were to form the main attacking force. They were to drive the enemy's scouts out of Agamassie, then to move straight on, extending to the right and left, and if possible, advance in a skirmishing line through the bush. Rait's Artillery, two guns, was to be in their centre, moving upon the road itself. A flanking column, consisting of half the Naval Brigade and Wood's Regiment, was to cut a path out to the right, and then to turn parallel with the main road, so that the head of the column should touch the right of the skirmishing line of the 42nd. Another flanking column, consisting of the other half of the Naval Brigade, with Russell's Regiment, was to proceed in similar fashion on the left. The company of the 23rd was to come behind the headquarters staff, while the Rifle Brigade was to remain in reserve. At six o'clock on the morning of January 31 the battle began, and continued on that day till 3 P.M. The "Black Watch" or 42nd Highlanders, marched rapidly through Quarman, then through Agamassie, from which Gifford, with his scouts, had first dislodged the Ashantee vanguard. Pushing on from Agamassie, the Highlanders were met by a tremendous fire, and presently found themselves in the centre of the hostile camp. They continued to make way, but with great difficulty. Captain Buckle, commanding the Engineers, was killed as he was entering the forest at the head of the left column. For an hour the right column was held at bay, while the Ashantees stubbornly maintained their position in a very thick jungle.

The 23rd were ordered up to support the right column ; two companies of the Rifle Brigade followed the advancing left column. The Naval Brigade suffered severe losses ; so bewilderingly dense was the wood before them, that the troops lost knowledge of the points of the compass, and fired sometimes into different portions of their own force. Major Macpherson, who had been leading the troops with the greatest spirit, was shot through the leg, and Sir Archibald Alison took his place in front. The Highlanders extended themselves on the ground so as to get below the enemy's shots, and as they crept on steadily, gave the Ashantees no time for pausing while they reloaded their weapons, but forced them to a continual retreat. But meanwhile the Ashantees fell in numbers ; the heaps of corpses served as a breastwork for the advancing British troops. A light in the woods now began to be perceptible. The decisive moment had arrived, and with a rush the "Black Watch" went up the narrow path before them, and out into the clearing. Amoaful was reached. For a short time the Ashantees kept up a fire, but it soon ceased. Rait sent a bomb from his great gun, which swept the street of the town, and the troops entered and encamped there. The 42nd Regiment, in its daring enterprise, had had one officer and two men killed, nine officers and 105 men severely wounded. The battle had begun at 8 o'clock, and Amoaful was taken at 11.45. General Wolseley advanced and took up his quarters in the captured place. Such was the battle of Amoaful. To the credit of the defeated Ashantees, it must be said that they had contested it with great valour and obstinacy. The precise number of the troops engaged on the English side that day was 1,375 British soldiers, sailors, and marines, with 106 officers and 708 native Africans.

Early on the next morning, February 1, the gallant Lord Gifford and his scouts proceeded again to their dangerous work of reconnoitring. They announced that the enemy was posted in force at Becquah, the residence of a powerful Prince, about a mile to the west of Amoaful. At half-past twelve the Naval Brigade and Russell's Regiment, with the 42nd in reserve, advanced against this place, Brigadier Alison leading them. Lord Gifford, far in advance of the main body, entered it, however, first, and was soon engaged in a desperate encounter, in which he lost some of his best men. It was for his personal valour in this conflict that he afterwards received the meed of the Victoria Cross. The Ashantee garrison, taken by surprise, retreated as the British main body came in, to the forest, from whence they kept up for some time a vigorous fire. Becquah was immediately set on fire, and soon reduced to ashes. The next day General Wolseley moved on to Agemammu, six miles from Amoaful ; the enemy contesting every inch of ground. The same day a portion of their forces attempted to break the British lines in the rear, at Fommanah, where, after a fight of several hours, they were repulsed by Captain Duncan and his garrison. On the 3rd, General Wol-

soley, leaving his tents and baggage at Agemammu and fortifying the post, resumed his march towards Coomassie. The King of Ashantee sent messengers with a letter begging him to halt, and promising compliance with his terms; but Sir Garnet replied that he had been deceived already, and could not trust him; however, he would advance no further than the river Orda that night, and if the King was in earnest about peace he must send his mother and his brother as hostages to the British camp without delay. The Ashantee force stood in mass at Oidahsu, a mile off. Due precautions were taken by the English commander at night to prevent a surprise. After waiting till two hours after daylight for the King's submission, Wolseley crossed the river and advanced to Ordahsu. Here the King himself was present with his troops. He sat on the left of the village on a seat of gold, under an umbrella of red silk and black satin, and threatened to behead every officer who should counsel flight. The English advance-guard, under the command of Colonel McLeod, was brought to a standstill by a vigorous fire, and the action soon became general, lasting for more than six hours. The Ashantees fought bravely, but with less precision and effect than at Amoafu. Ordahsu was carried by the Rifle Brigade at nine o'clock, and the whole British force was moved up and concentrated there. Soon after an attempt was made by the Ashantees to retake the village; but it proved unsuccessful, a panic seized on their forces, and they fled along the road to Coomassie, six miles distant, before the advance of the 42nd Highlanders. The British regiment, under Brigadier Alison, pushed on. Empty powder-casks, barrels, umbrellas, corpses, lay on their path. As they reached Quaisie, the last village before Coomassie, a company met them with a flag of truce and the offer of several slaves as hostages; these were sent to General Wolseley in the rear, and Alison moved on. Then another deputation was sent, entreating him to halt. Alison wished to rest his troops awhile, and accorded half an hour to the inhabitants to take their measures for flight. At the end of that time he crossed the black swamp which surrounds Coomassie, ascended the last rise, and entered the town at 5.30 p.m. General Wolseley followed with the rearguard only a few minutes later. The whole amount of the force engaged on the British side in this battle of Ordahsu was 2,217. The endurance of the troops during their hard day's work had been exemplary. They had been twelve hours on the road without rest, or time to cook food; water was bad and scarce; and they had to keep up an obstinate fight with an enemy concealed in the bush. Moreover they had gone through almost equal fatigue on the previous day, and had spent the night without shelter in a drenching rain. Three hundred British officers and men in killed and wounded had been the cost of this memorable march to Coomassie. The names of the dead excited deep regret. Captain Nichol, of the Hants Militia; Captain Buckle, of the Royal Engineers; Lieutenant Eyre, of the 90th Light Infantry, had met their death on the field. Major Baird received at Amoafu the

wounds of which he died shortly afterwards. Others, not on the battle-list, fell victims to the climate; of these were Captain Huyshe, deputy-assistant quartermaster-general, and Lieutenant Townsend, of the 16th Regiment.¹ The death of young Arthur Eyre of the 90th was heroic. It is thus related in a letter to the *Times*:—"When Lieutenant-Colonel Evelyn Wood, V.C., was wounded in the engagement of January 31 at the 'warm corner' to the right of the position, Lieutenant Eyre was at his side. Colonel Wood fell, but got up almost immediately, declaring he was not hurt, and would go on. Lieutenant Eyre, pointing to the hole made by a slug in Colonel Wood's chest, drew him back. Then a cry arose that the sailors were firing into the 23rd, and Colonel Wood, seeing some hesitation in those he ordered forward to make inquiries, began to press forward himself, when Lieutenant Eyre ran quickly in front of him, crying, 'You shan't go; it is not your place,' and received himself the full blaze of the Ashantee fire."

On entering Coomassie the General strictly forbade all plundering on the part of his men; but the darkness of night coming on, the camp followers could not always be restrained, and a policeman taken in the act was hung. Here and there, too, attempts were made to set fire to the town. Coomassie was found to be a large place, with wide streets, and houses with verandahs, built round courtyards. It bore tokens of desolation in patches of waste land, covered with grass, and the absence of domestic poultry, &c., the despotism of the King making property as well as life insecure among the Ashantees. The King's palace was larger than that of the chief of Fommanah, and consisted of many courts, each a house in itself. Upstairs were several small rooms, each of which was a perfect old curiosity shop, containing books in all languages, English newspapers, Bohemian glass, Kidderminster carpets, pictures, furniture, &c. The King's sitting-room was a court with a tree growing in it, which was covered with fetish objects and hung with spiders' webs. In the Royal bedroom adjacent was an English general's sword, bearing the inscription "From Queen Victoria to the King of Ashantee"—a gift probably of Her Majesty to Calcall's predecessor. Besides the King's palace there was a grand building, called the Bantoma, where the ashes of former monarchs were entombed, and which was considered the most sacred spot in all Ashantee land. Sir Garnet Wolseley sent word to the King that his desire was to spare Coomassie, and if he would come into the town and sign the peace a smaller indemnity would be accepted than that at first specified. But if not, a sign should be given of Great Britain's power which should be known throughout the length and breadth of Africa. The King promised to come, but came not. The General waited throughout the whole day of the 5th in vain. The envoys sent with deceitful promises by the monarch were caught surreptitiously

¹ The total loss of officers in consequence of the Ashantee Expedition was forty-two. Of these, six only died of wounds.

removing property. The General then gave orders to burn the Bantoma; but, on second thoughts, he recalled them. The destruction of so strong and vast a fortress would have taken too much time, and perhaps in their despair the Ashantees would have rallied round their sacred mausoleum in inconvenient force. In fact, it was very necessary to think of a speedy retreat. Heavy rain had fallen; and if the streams in rear of the British army should be much swollen its backward march might be seriously impeded. It was coming short of the entire triumph anticipated, to leave Coomassie without the Treaty and the Royal signature; but the subjugation of the capital was a sufficient blow to Ashantee prestige; and that it might never be forgotten by the nation Sir Garnet gave orders to set fire to the city and the Royal palace.

"The demolition of the place was complete," said Sir Garnet in his despatch to the Colonial Secretary. "From all that I can gather, I believe that the result will be such a diminution in the prestige and military power of the Ashantee monarch as may result in the break-up of the kingdom altogether. This I had been anxious to avoid, because it seems impossible to foresee what Power can take this nation's place among the feeble races of this coast. I certainly believe that your Lordship may be well convinced that no more utterly atrocious Government than that which has thus, perhaps, fallen, ever existed on the face of the earth. Their capital was a charnel-house; their religion a combination of cruelty and treachery; their policy the natural outcome of their religion. I cannot think that, whatever may be the final fate of the people of this country, the absolute annihilation of such a race, should it occur, would be a subject for unmixed regret. In any case, I believe that the main object of my expedition has been perfectly secured. The territories of the Gold Coast will not again be troubled by the warlike ambition of this restless Power. I may add that the flag of England from this moment will be received throughout Western Africa with respectful awe, a treatment which has been of late years by no means its invariable fate among the savage tribes of this region."

It was Sir Garnet Wolseley's good fortune not to bring his enterprise to an end without the rounding off of complete success. The return march of the British troops towards the coast commenced on the 6th. At Fommanah, where the General halted for four days, he was again visited by envoys from Koffee Calalli, bearing in their hands a thousand ounces of gold, and asking for a draft of the Treaty, to be signed forthwith by the defeated monarch. The draft was accordingly given to them, and was actually signed a month later. What had brought the King to this tardy, and it would seem unnecessary, submission, now that Wolseley had done his worst and was retreating? It was the march of Captain Glover that had occasioned the step. That officer, working up from the East with troops drawn from the native tribes of the Akims, Yorubas, and Houssas—between three

thousand and four thousand in number—had arrived within eighteen miles of Coomassie, when he heard of the capture and destruction of the place. His difficulties had been great. Many of the men with whom he originally set out had deserted, and he had failed to make the junction with Wolseley, which, had it taken place a few days earlier, must have crushed the foe effectually. Nevertheless, his advance had operated as a useful diversion on the left of the Ashantee forces; and when he, too, arrived near the ruined city, the monarch's spirit altogether left him. Thinking that some of the British forces might still be in Coomassie, Glover sent on Captain Reginald Sartorius with twenty men to reconnoitre. Then occurred one of the most dashing exploits of the war. Sartorius found the capital deserted. None of the inhabitants had returned to try and secure their property, or view their burned homesteads. But they might be lurking anywhere; in fact, Sartorius heard that the King and his attendants were near at hand, weeping over the ruins of Coomassie. With his little band of twenty men Sartorius rode boldly through the deserted precincts, and then onwards through fifty miles of hostile territory to join the British army, passing one burnt village after another, but not meeting any human form, till at Fommanah they came up with the main body of Sir Garnet's forces. Captain Glover followed in the track of Sartorius, first to Coomassie and then to Fommanah.

On February 19 Sir Garnet Wolseley entered Cape Coast Castle under a grand triumphal arch. The native regiments were paid off and sent to their homes. Prahsu, which had been fortified and placed in telegraphic communication with Cape Coast Castle, was garrisoned by the West Indian contingent. The English regiments took ship, and reached England, as we have seen, early in March.

The Treaty, finally signed by King Koffee Calcalli, stipulated that he should renounce all rights of Protectorate over the petty monarchs in alliance with the British Queen and formerly tributary to the kingdom of Ashantee; also over any of the tribes formerly connected with the Dutch Government on the Gold Coast; that free trade should be permitted between Ashantee and the British ports; that the road between Coomassie and the Prah should always be kept open; that the King should use his best efforts to check the practice of human sacrifice: and that he should pay in instalments a war indemnity of 50,000 ounces of approved gold, beginning with 1,000 ounces forthwith.

The cost of the war to the British Government was estimated at 900,000*l.* sterling. To Sir Garnet Wolseley, who declined titular honours, a sum of 25,000*l.* was awarded in recognition of his services. Captain Glover was made a Knight of St. Michael and St. George. Lord Gifford and Captain Sartorius received the Victoria Cross for deeds of personal bravery.

On May 12 the Earl of Carnarvon, in the House of Lords, thus

indicated the views entertained by Government of our future policy on the Gold Coast :—

“ Motives connected with trade would not,” he said, “ afford a sufficient reason for retaining our possessions in such a locality, but there were moral obligations, and a great empire like England must be prepared to accept the duties and burdens resulting from its greatness. By a long system of protection we had taught the natives to depend on us, and by abandoning them we should probably hand them over to the Ashantees, and then within a year after our departure all the barbarous practices we had induced them to give up would be revived. Before explaining the future policy proposed to be adopted he thought it right to remind the House that the Government of the Gold Coast was connected with three other settlements at distances from each other too great to permit one Administrator to have an effective control over all of them. Therefore, the first part of his proposal would be to constitute Lagos and the Gold Coast one single colony, very much on the principle of the Straits Settlements, and there would be an Executive and Legislative Council composed of a very small number of persons. Great power would be given to the Governor, and in return great responsibility would be exacted from him. He hoped to effect a reduction of the official staff, and he would, at the same time, increase the salaries of the officers employed, who were at present underpaid, and also augment the amount of their retiring pensions. An important point to decide was where the seat of Government should be placed; and as the climate at the Gold Coast was more pestilential than at any other part of our possessions in that quarter of the globe, it was necessary that the Government should be removed elsewhere, but he was hardly prepared at the present moment to say whether its seat should be at Accra or Elmina. At a distance of thirty miles from Accra the country in the hills was very healthy, and he proposed to establish a station there, connected by a road with Accra, and at that station the English Governor and his officers might reside during a portion of the year, should Accra be selected as the seat of Government. It was also proposed to make roads along which lawful traders might pass, and to have those roads protected at certain stations by armed police. The military force would be composed of natives belonging to different tribes, with a certain proportion of English officers attached to it. He proposed that the importation of arms should be placed under some control, and that certain changes should be made in regard to the administration of justice. In reference to the existing system of domestic slavery, Lord Carnarvon observed that though it was a difficult subject to deal with, he should be glad to pave the way to its ultimate extinction, and as far as territorial jurisdiction was concerned, he said that the Government, while inclined to maintain the Protectorate, thought it undesirable to enlarge the actual extent of the territorial power.”

At a later period of the Session, a Vote of 35,000*l.* was asked for and obtained, for the purpose of carrying out the new scheme of Government for the Gold Coast, Captain Strahan being appointed Governor at 3,000*l.* per annum.

It so happened that on the same evening that the officers and troops engaged in the Ashantee War received the thanks of Parliament, the Secretary for War made his annual speech on the general position and prospects of the Army. From paying honour to the little band which had shown what English troops could do when actively employed, the House of Commons passed to the consideration of the cost, the composition, and the distribution of the whole body on which this band had reflected so much honour. The amount of the force asked for, as necessary for the peace establishment of the British Empire, was 128,994 men, and the amount of pay and allowances for maintaining it, 4,434,500*l.* Mr. Hardy approached the difficult subject of the Army Estimates like a prudent man, to whom his duties were new, and moved as far as possible in the line marked out for him by his predecessor, while at the same time his endorsement of Lord Cardwell's measures was somewhat short of cordial. He accepted the Abolition of Purchase, for instance, as irrevocable; but he expressed a wish that those who carried the Abolition had managed to settle satisfactorily the difficulties with which it was surrounded; and significantly intimated that there were in his opinion officers who had been hardly treated, and that he would not shrink in due time from remedying in a very liberal spirit the grievances they might urge. He did not exactly quarrel with the system of examination which bars the progress of Militia officers who seek commissions in the Line; but he observed that, whereas Lord Cardwell had described this examination as offering no obstacle to any man of good education, the particular gentlemen of good education who had tried to pass it found it so serious a barrier that loud complaints were made that only two failures were permitted. But it was especially at the close of his speech, when he spoke of the mistake of regarding officers and men as pieces on a chess-board who could be moved about without regard to their feelings, sympathies, traditions, and prejudices, that he made it apparent how much in some important respects he diverged from the opinions of his predecessor. As to the details of the management and condition of the Army, Mr. Hardy had little new information to offer, and he was much too prudent to commit himself on points which he was aware he might only understand imperfectly as yet. He observed that much the greatest cause for anxiety as to the future of the Army was afforded this year, as it was last year, by the startling proportions which desertion bears to recruiting. Very nearly 4,000 men deserted in 1873, and the percentage upon recruiting was nearly 33 per cent. of the whole. In the Infantry of the Line it was 30 per cent., in the Foot Guards 51 per cent., and in the Army Service Corps it had attained the ex-

traordinary proportion of 146 per cent., so that if the corps were not recruited a little more assiduously, the whole corps would soon melt away. There was great difficulty, he said, in getting recruits for the Line, and a still greater difficulty in getting recruits for the Militia, one reason in the latter case being the disinclination of the men to serve under canvas; and when the recruits were got with infinite pains and at great expense, one man in three would run off, and show his dislike of his new trade by seeking his fortune elsewhere. It was obvious that, if this state of things should continue, some remedy must be found; and Mr. Hardy intimated that he had already begun to consider very seriously whether some modification would not have to be made in the whole scheme by which service was now adjusted, so as to make his calling more attractive, because more lucrative and more permanent, to the soldier.

On the question of Military Education he dwelt at some length, explaining the new system about to be introduced at Sandhurst Military School and the changes contemplated at Woolwich. He next described the progress made in arming the Regular and Auxiliary Forces, stating as a general result that the quality of our armament is most efficient and the reserves ample. In place of the Autumn Manœuvres it is proposed that there shall be two trainings of bodies of 10,000 men each at Aldershot in June and July, by which some 40,000*l.* will be saved. With regard to the Militia, the inspectors reported a considerable improvement in their training, although the recruiting was not sufficient to keep up the establishment; and so also in the Volunteers, though there was a falling off in numbers, there was a great addition to the number of efficient. But certain changes were in contemplation in the conditions of drill, shooting, &c., which would greatly relieve the force. Lastly, Mr. Hardy touched on the Fortification Vote, stating that within two years all the works will be completed, and that the sea defences are nearly all armed; and he concluded by exhorting the Committee not to forget that ours was an Army of Volunteers, that its feelings and even its prejudices must be carefully considered, and that both officers and men ought always to feel secure of being treated with justice by Parliament and the Government.

The Vote was agreed to, after the rejection of an Amendment moved by Sir Wilfrid Lawson, who wished to reduce the force by 10,000 men, asking what nation we were preparing to fight with? He hoped not with the Ashantees, for all we had derived from the war just concluded was a few umbrellas and a Treaty!

After this Vote the Houses of Parliament separated for the Easter Recess.

CHAPTER II.

Opposition without a Leader—Conciliatory Tone of Government—Budget—Navy Estimates—Earl Russell's Motion on Foreign Relations—Lord Derby's Reply—Brussels Conference—Licensing Bill—Sir Wilfrid Lawson—Judicature Bill—Scotch Church Patronage Bill—Speeches of Duke of Argyll, Mr. Gladstone, and Mr. Disraeli—"Endowed Schools Act Amendment Bill"—Speech of Mr. Gladstone—Irish Home Rule—Irish Fisheries Bill—Household Suffrage Motion—Mr. Disraeli's Speech—Lord Hampton's Motion for Minister of Public Instruction—Rating and Factory Bills—India Councils Bill—Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught—Prince Leopold's Allowance—The Czar's Visit to England.

WHEN the Parliamentary forces ranged themselves on either side in the new House of Commons, the very unusual spectacle presented itself of an Opposition without an active Leader. Mr. Gladstone, on whom that office naturally devolved as ex-Premier, was desirous to avail himself of the opportunity afforded by his retirement from the Ministry to seek repose, literary occupation, and perhaps leisure for the contemplation of future political action; and reports early prevailed that he meant to withdraw altogether—in spleen, many said—from connection with the party which he had hitherto led. These reports were indeed set aside by the following letter, which he addressed to Lord Granville on the opening of the Session :—

“ 11 Carlton House Terrace, March 12.

“ MY DEAR GRANVILLE,—I have issued a circular to members of Parliament of the Liberal party on the occasion of the opening of Parliamentary business. But I feel it to be necessary that while discharging this duty I should explain what a circular could not convey with regard to my individual position at the present time. I need not apologise for addressing these explanations to you. Independently of other reasons for so troubling you, it is enough to observe that you have very long represented the Liberal party, and have also acted on behalf of the late Government, from its commencement to its close, in the House of Lords. For a variety of reasons personal to myself I could not contemplate any unlimited extension of active political service; and I am anxious that it should be clearly understood by those friends with whom I have acted in the direction of affairs, that at my age I must reserve my entire freedom to divest myself of all the responsibilities of leadership at no distant time. The need of rest will prevent me from giving more than occasional attendance in the House of Commons during the present Session. I should be desirous, shortly before the commencement of the Session of 1875, to consider whether there would be advantage in my placing my services for a time at the disposal of the Liberal party, or whether I should then claim exemption from the duties I have hitherto discharged.

If, however, there should be reasonable ground for believing that, instead of the course which I have sketched, it would be preferable, in the view of the party generally, for me to assume at once the place of an independent member, I should willingly adopt the latter alternative. But I shall retain all that desire which I have hitherto felt for the welfare of the party, and if the gentlemen composing it should think fit either to choose a leader or to make provision *ad interim*, with a view to the convenience of the present year, the person designated would, of course, command from me any assistance which he might find occasion to seek, and which it might be in my power to render."

On his own terms, thus offered, Mr. Gladstone's nominal leadership was of course accepted by the Liberal party. Meanwhile there were lieutenants on whom some of his duties might be devolved. Mr. Chichester Fortescue and Mr. Cardwell had indeed been removed from the House of Commons, to receive, along with three others of Mr. Gladstone's friends and supporters, the honours of peerage; but there were others, as Mr. Lowe, Mr. Goschen, Mr. Stansfeld, who might lead their party to special assaults, or Lord Hartington might be put forward to take a more general command, in case the ex-Premier should make much use of his stipulation for frequent absences. The adverse party made merry with the idea of a leadership put in commission, and suggested that the office should finally be awarded by competitive examination. Assuredly the weight of Mr. Gladstone's personal influence was never more recognised than now, when his followers had to marshal themselves on the Opposition benches as best they might without him.

One thing that made it less anomalous for the Opposition to be without a leader was that the Government it had to oppose was without a policy. After all the invectives in which the Conservatives, and especially their chief, had indulged against the late holders of office, it now became manifest that it was their one wish to tread in their predecessors' steps; not to venture on hazardous reactionary measures, not to strike out untried reforms on a Conservative basis, not to provoke animosity by taunts of triumph; but to try to make their footing good on the ground already occupied, and for the present at least go neither backwards nor forwards. All recent sarcasms about the "plundering and blundering" of the Liberals were ignored; to be conciliatory in tone was the first rule of procedure. Thus, when one of the speakers on the Address attacked Mr. Gladstone on the unexpected Dissolution, Mr. Disraeli immediately announced that the attack had been made without consultation, and complimented the late Premier in the warmest terms on what had been really successful in his chequered career. The Irish officials were profuse in their commendation of the late Viceroy's administration; the Secretary of State for India vigorously endorsed Lord Northbrook's policy in Bengal; the Chancellors past and present took cordial counsel together on the changes to be carried out in the

Law procedure of the country: and Mr. Gathorne Hardy accepted Lord Cardwell's arrangements for the Army, withdrawing even his late determined opposition to the scheme for making Oxford a military centre. With one or two abortive exceptions, hereafter to be noticed, this continued to be the policy of the Government throughout the Session. It was nowhere more conspicuous than in the Budget proposals, which were the first matter that came on for discussion after the Easter Recess.

It was hardly surprising that the Opposition should have indulged in a complacent cheer when Sir Stafford Northcote, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced, with many complimentary expressions to his eminent predecessor, that Mr. Gladstone's calculations had proved perfectly correct, and that the surplus really amounted to five millions and a half. Cautious critics indeed remarked that the estimates had not been made by either financier with the strictest prudence, for it went on the assumption that the revenue would increase by a million and a half in the course of the year, an assumption which facts might or might not justify. Sir Stafford put the case thus:—

The Expenditure for 1873-4, he showed, reached 76,466,500*l.* It included the American Award and the Ashantee War; and as we looked forward to no such liabilities this year, here alone was nearly four millions to the good. But then the Estimate of Revenue, assuming that taxation remained as last year, shows wonderful results. Last year we expected to receive revenue to the extent of 73,762,000*l.* It was fortunate that we received more, for we wanted more. The actual receipts were 77,335,657*l.* On the same basis the revenue of this year—1874-75—is 77,995,000*l.*, made up as follows:—

Customs	£20,740,000
Excise	28,090,000
Stamps	10,880,000
Land Tax and House Duty	2,360,000
Income Tax	5,550,000
Post Office	5,300,000
Telegraphs	1,250,000
Crown Lands	375,000
Miscellaneous	3,500,000
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Total Estimated Revenue	£77,995,000
Estimated Expenditure	72,503,000
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Estimated Surplus	£5,492,000

But we have not reached the full extent of the surplus yet. It has occurred to some one, for the first time, that interest on advances ought to be included in the revenue of the year, of which it clearly forms part. It has not been so reckoned heretofore, so that there is another half million to be added, making the full six millions of surplus.

The help the Chancellor of the Exchequer had received in advice concerning the disposal of the amount afforded an opportunity to amuse the House. Deputations had suggested ways of sweeping off no less than 55,000,000*l.* of revenue. To all these advances Sir Stafford had turned a willing ear, but deemed the only prudent and dignified course to be to say nothing in reply. One other adviser, he said, he would have liked to consult. He would like to have called up

" Him that left half told
The story of Cambuscan bold."

He would have been glad to know what Mr. Gladstone's "adjustment scheme" was, in view of the total abolition of the Income Tax. Not knowing that, and looking at things soberly, it did not commend itself to his good judgment to "lightly throw down, at six weeks' notice," a system which had yielded since its existence no less than 350,000,000*l.* of revenue. One other possible mode of dealing with the surplus was specially alluded to—India. Should not the great financial prosperity of England be turned to account to help Bengal in her famine distress? Sir Stafford, however, was satisfied that, Indian credit being good, to help would only impair it; and that argument, with the suggestion that finance relief would lead to administrative carelessness, was deemed sufficient.

Sir Stafford Northcote had then to say what he would do. He began with the National Debt, and proposed to set apart the half million of interest spoken of, by which, with advances repaid for Terminable Annuities, the extinction of 7,300,000*l.* of National Debt would be secured by 1885; and he made the gratifying remark that by that year we should have paid off since 1842 no less than 140,000,000*l.*

Then came the diminution, though not the abolition, of the Income Tax. He proposed to reduce it by one penny in the pound, the ultimate cost of which would be 1,800,000*l.*, but of which only 1,500,000*l.* would come in this year's Estimate. This concluded his dealings with direct taxation; and, passing to indirect taxes, he announced at once his intention to propose the entire abolition of the Sugar Duties, the cost of which would be 2,000,000*l.* The date of abolition was fixed at May 1 for raw sugar, and May 21 for refined sugar. Sir Stafford argued with some elaboration in defence of this proposal, which he said the Government made with no misgivings, replying to the objections to sweeping away altogether a source of revenue, and pointing out, among other advantages, the stimulus to be given to commerce, if England became, as might be anticipated, an *entrepôt* of the sugar trade. This reduced the surplus to 942,000*l.*; and on an incidental mention being made of the Malt Tax, he remarked that the sum now left was too small for him to deal with that. Finally, he canvassed the various suggestions made to him by deputations and otherwise. With regard to the Inhabited House Duty, the Excise Licenses, and the Dog Tax, he held them

over for future consideration; but as to the Brewers' Licenses and the Railway Passenger Duties, he was of opinion that no sufficient case had been made out. His final proposal was to abolish the Horse Duty, the Horse Dealers' Duty, and the Race Horse Duty; amounting in all to 480,000*l.* The aggregate total of these various reductions is 5,030,000*l.*, and they would reduce the original surplus to 462,000*l.*, which was the working surplus or available margin between revenue and expenditure which the Budget proposed to retain. Sir Stafford concluded a speech of nearly two hours and three-quarters by reminding the Committee of the difficulties under which his Budget had necessarily been framed, and by claiming for it that it was conceived in no spirit of party interest.

The Budget passed without opposition in the House of Commons, and was received by the country with reasonable satisfaction, as a workable—though not a brilliant—scheme.

After giving his sanction to the Budget proposals, and repelling a desultory attack on his conduct in dissolving Parliament made by Mr. Smollett, a Conservative member—an attack which did not gain any countenance from Government, and was, in fact, supported by Mr. Whalley only—the ex-Premier betook himself to his desired retreat in Wales, and to the contemplation of Homeric fights, until some fresh impulse should goad him to the arena of actual politics again.

The Navy Estimates were moved by Mr. Ward Hunt in a tone less complimentary to his predecessors than that which some of his colleagues had adopted, and for the moment what was popularly called a “scare” was created about the condition of our ironclad vessels and other parts of the Naval Service. The Estimates, said Mr. Hunt, were, with one slight exception, those of the late Ministry. The total sum asked for was 10,179,485*l.*; but there was a sum to be deducted for extraordinary receipts and Indian contributions, which would reduce it to 9,966,485*l.* In comparing it with last year's Votes, Mr. Hunt mentioned that just at the close of the financial year a Supplementary Estimate of 105,000*l.* for the Zanzibar Expedition had been voted; so that the real increase in this year's Estimates is only 174,760*l.* Making all the necessary deductions, the total cost of the Navy is as nearly as possible ten millions, of which the effective services absorb nearly eight millions. Of this the *matériel* of the Navy costs 3,700,000*l.*, the *personnel* about as much more, leaving 400,000*l.* for the administrative services. Having given these general figures, Mr. Hunt went seriatim through the Special Votes, touching briefly on the causes of increase or decrease in each.

He went in great detail into the shipbuilding programme of the year, the general result being that 19,470 tons are to be built—namely, 13,852 in the dockyards, and 5,618 in the private yards. The total number of ships in commission he stated as 123—viz. 23 ironclads, 8 frigates, 14 corvettes, 27 sloops, 32 gun vessels,

and 18 gunboats. Next, he entered into an elaborate retrospect and comparison of the shipbuilding operations of the late Government and its predecessor—the ships begun, the tonnage completed, and the money spent; with a view not only to the justification of the economy and efficiency of Mr. Corry's administration, but also to show that but for the progress Mr. Corry had made in laying down ironclads the economies of his successors would have been impossible. The result of the economies of the late Government he illustrated by the condition of the ironclad fleet, of which he drew a most gloomy picture. Of our forty-one sea-going ironclads (of which five are building) only eighteen could be considered as effective at the present moment, and of the fourteen which were available only for coast and harbour defence—in which class he included the "Devastation" until further trials had been made of her—only nine were good for anything at all. At the same time, he pointed out that no ironclad would be finished this year, one only in 1875, three in 1876, and two in 1877. Mr. Hunt then examined the naval finance of the last seven years, showing that after Mr. Childers had made his reductions in obedience to a political necessity, the wants of the Navy began to be recognised, and the Estimates now had again risen to within a quarter of a million of the point at which Mr. Corry had left them. Finally, he assured the Committee, as the result of a most careful examination of the subject, that though he was not prepared to propose any addition to his predecessor's Estimates, he could not take upon himself to say that he was satisfied of their sufficiency to maintain the Navy in a satisfactory condition, nor could he conceal from himself that it might be necessary hereafter to make fresh demands on the public.

Mr. Goschen, in reply, defended the late Administration, and observed that if the case were as Mr. Hunt put it, he was bound to take practical action, and to propose at once a considerable addition to the Estimates. Now this was a course which the Ministry were by no means prepared to adopt; and 'it became obvious that Mr. Hunt's partisanship had carried him beyond the bounds of discretion. Sir Stafford Northcote, in the course of a Budget discussion a few days later, remarked that there was no discrepancy between his Budget Speech and Mr. Hunt's Speech on the Navy Estimates, and the "scare" by which the public mind had been agitated since Monday was absolutely baseless—indeed, unaccountable. He hoped to get through the Session without any Supplementary Estimates, but if they were necessary there was a margin of half a million to meet them. He had heard Mr. Hunt's speech without any disturbance of his equanimity as Chancellor of the Exchequer, though the speech of Mr. Goschen, which denied none of the facts alleged, had caused him some uneasiness. Just as he objected to the violent reductions of the late Government, so he objected to any violent launching into expenditure, and he believed it to be quite uncalled for, although it might be necessary

to do something, perhaps to the extent of one or two hundred thousands, to increase the efficiency of the Navy.

Mr. Childers subsequently defended the Administration of the late Government, maintained the actual and potential efficiency of the Navy, and declared that it was unpardonable, for mere political purposes, to make an alarmist speech, and that the country would not forgive Government if it ventured on an inflated expenditure in a time of profound peace. The First Lord of the Admiralty had to retreat as best he could from the position he had rashly taken up. After all the censure passed on him, he said, he had done no more than his duty in stating the exact truth as to the condition of the Navy, and the tale which he had told had not been impugned. In the statement he had made—even to the words—he had the sanction of his naval advisers, who were also Mr. Goschen's advisers. It was not his intention to create a scare, and if the country had been alarmed it was not by his speech, but by the speeches of Mr. Goschen and Mr. Reed. There was no discrepancy, he asserted, between him and the Chancellor of the Exchequer; and though he did contemplate a Supplementary Estimate, he had no idea of undertaking "heroic efforts" to increase the expenditure. Mr. Hunt repeated his belief that Mr. Childers's reductions were not genuine economies, and that they would not have been possible but for what Mr. Corry had done; and that although the Estimates were gradually rising under Mr. Goschen up to Mr. Corry's level, the Navy was handed over to his successors in an unsatisfactory condition.

Mr. Goschen still held to the opinion that Mr. Hunt had used exaggerated language, and that it was not his speech but Mr. Hunt's expressions, "paper fleet" and "dummy ships" which had created the "scare." He denied that he had ever admitted the Navy to be inefficient; on the contrary, he maintained that the moderate Supplementary Estimate to which Mr. Hunt had sunk down was a proof that its shortcomings were very small. He predicted that the present debate would clear away many delusions and misrepresentations; and, trusting that the past would be allowed to drop into oblivion, offered Mr. Hunt his hearty co-operation to establish, not only the efficiency, but the reputation, of the Navy.

It was, perhaps, fortunate that the popular fears on this head of the inefficiency of the Navy had been exorcised before Earl Russell, on May 4, took upon him to apply a touchstone to the temper of the new Government by venturing, with somewhat characteristic temerity, on the dangerous subject of "Foreign Relations." He failed, however, to elicit any indication of that "spirited foreign policy" which used to be the cry of the Conservative party when in Opposition; while, at the same time, the oracular caution of Lord Derby's reply produced upon alarmists for the moment the impression that he had something dreadful and dangerous to conceal. Earl Russell's Motion was for "Copies

of any correspondence relating to the maintenance of the peace of Europe with the Governments of the Emperor of Germany, the Emperor of Austria, the Emperor of Russia, and the French Republic, which can be communicated without injury to the public service." The motion was conceived, he said, in no spirit of hostility to Her Majesty's Government; it had reference to the maintenance of the peace of Europe and the intentions of the Government in certain eventualities. The state of Europe five years ago was one of great apparent tranquillity, and there seemed, according to a statement from the then Government, to be no danger of a rupture of that peace; but yet people who were well informed knew that there was a determination on the part of the States of Germany to have a union of Germany, and on the other hand a determination on the part of the French to obtain certain territory on the banks of the Rhine. They were aware of the events which had since occurred, and he wished to know whether the symptoms of agitation and hostility which were now to be perceived were subsiding waves of a past storm, or whether they were the omens of a coming tempest. They had it from a great man, Field-Marshal Moltke, in a statement recently made by him to the German Parliament, that what Germany had obtained in five months would require fifty years to consolidate. He was told by people well informed that the whole of the French Army, from the highest marshal down to the lowest of ensigns, were determined to have their revenge for what they regarded as a spoliation of the territory of France by the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine. The question was whether in such a state of things we could trace the signs of an approaching storm, or whether, notwithstanding these symptoms, we might remain for some years in peace and tranquillity; and if they were the signs of storm, he wished to know whether Her Majesty's Government would in that case be prepared to take measures which would preserve the peace of Europe? For his own part, he was convinced that such was the vast influence of England in the councils of Europe that it was in her power to preserve the general peace. He did not think that any Power would disturb that peace if there were a strong alliance with England on the part of nations determined to maintain it, and he therefore imagined that we might rely upon Her Majesty's Government adhering firmly to all the engagements and to all the Treaties by which the Crown of Great Britain was bound to her Allies. On the other hand, there would be no attempt to evade or shirk those positive engagements which the Crown and the country had entered into; and, in the next place, he wished that if there were any danger to the peace of Europe, the whole influence of Great Britain would be exerted for the purpose of maintaining it.

Lord Derby, in reply, declining to produce the papers, as hardly compatible with the faith due to the Governments of other countries, said: "The noble Earl asks me whether we are to regard the

agitation which we now see in Europe as only the result of past wars, as only the swell left by storms that are past, or as the indication of new storms that are about to rage. My Lords, if I am to answer that question, however generally, I can only do so by distinguishing between immediate and more remote events. If I look to more remote events—and events pass quickly in these days—I don't think it would be right or honest for me or any one in my position to deny that in present appearances there may be ground for apprehension and anxiety. I do not, my Lords, say that on any peculiar or official information, but I come to it as a conclusion founded on knowledge which is common to the whole world. We must all bear in our recollection the events that occurred a few years ago, and we know the feelings which they have left in the minds of two great populations. We know, again, that among the population of France there is a very general and widespread desire to regain that territory which they lost by the fortune of war; and, on the other hand, there is equally a strong determination on the part of Germany to retain that which has been acquired. In saying that I merely remind your Lordships of that of which you are all aware, but at the same time the subject is one which must occupy the minds of those who have the care of foreign affairs. It may be said that do what we may war will come sooner or later. I think it was Mr. Canning who, in reply to a person who made a like remark to him, said, 'Well, if war is to come sooner or later, I should prefer that it would be rather later than sooner,' and for the obvious reason that there is the chance that with time feelings of agitation will subside in men's minds, and that therefore there is the greater hope of the preservation of peace. Your Lordships would probably think that I should be doing a very rash thing if I ventured to predict what may happen in some years to come, but with all that feeling of uncertainty I must say that if I may judge from all the information I receive—from the general tone and spirit of the communications which reach me from all parts of Europe, so far as immediate appearances go—there is no serious cause for apprehension of any disturbance of the peace of Europe. I now come to the other question which the noble Earl addressed to me. He asks, in the event of the danger of war becoming more imminent, what should we do to preserve the peace? Now, that is an inquiry that cannot be answered in very definite terms, but I think there cannot be any doubt that, without involving ourselves in a quarrel to which we were not a party, we should leave no reasonable endeavour untried to preserve peace. The noble Earl asks if we shall adhere to our International engagements. I don't think there can be much doubt in your Lordships' minds as to the answer which I shall feel it my duty to give to that question. If for any reason an International Treaty or engagement becomes inapplicable to the times, it is certainly the duty of the Government to state it; but if you accept the obligations of a Treaty,

and you give the other parties reason to believe that you consider them binding, you are bound in honour and good faith to maintain them. It is well known that England has, even of late years, entered into Treaties, and I do not hesitate to say that we regard them as binding in honour and good faith."

Later in the Session, Lord Derby had occasion to announce the policy of the Government in reference to the International Conference on the Rules of War, which was held at Brussels. In reply to a question from Lord Denbigh, on July 3, he said that the Conference in question had been set on foot by the Emperor of Russia, and though there had existed grave doubts as to the possibility of its accomplishing its purpose, yet Her Majesty's Government, after communicating with other Powers, had accepted the invitation to send a representative to the Conference, but only subject to important reservations and conditions. The Government were firmly determined not to enter into any discussion of the rules of International Law, by which the relations of belligerents were guided, or to enter into any new engagements of any kind in regard to general principles, and they would protest against any extension of the scope of the Conference which would include matters relative to maritime operations or naval warfare. Unless the Government received a satisfactory assurance on those points they would decline to send a representative; but, if a representative should be sent, he would not be invested with plenipotentiary authority or empowered to assent, on the part of Her Majesty's Government, to any new rules, but would simply be present at the discussions and report the proceedings to the Government, who reserved to themselves the full liberty of action.

The Licensing Bill, entrusted to the charge of Mr. Cross, the new Home Secretary, occupied in utterly uninteresting discussions a large part of the Session. The "trade" had been greatly irritated and alarmed by the first abortive legislation of Mr. Bruce in 1871; and the subsequent measure of 1872 was disliked, not so much on account of its intrinsic demerits, as because the agitated publicans identified its drift with that of the previous measure, and distrusted it as proceeding from the hands of the same Minister. So it was that the cry of the Licensed Victuallers had become a powerful electioneering element for the Tory Party; and was sometimes heard, rather incongruously, along with that of the sticklers for religious education in the Board Schools. According to the sarcasm of their enemies, "Bible and Beer" was the Conservative programme at the hustings. When the Conservatives came to redeem their promise of an Amending Bill, accordingly, vague hopes of relaxation were indulged in by the tavern and alehouse proprietors; and it was a signal disappointment to their hopes when the measure introduced by Mr. Cross, the Home Secretary, turned out to be, if not one of further restriction, at all events of no practical extension of freedom in the sale of strong

drinks. The Bill, as introduced in April, proposed that in towns being urban sanitary districts, and containing 10,000 inhabitants or more, publichouses should be closed at half-past eleven, and in other places at eleven. When it became law, it enacted that out of London eleven should be the latest hour of closing, and this only in "populous places," the hour elsewhere being fixed at ten. Mr. Bruce's Act had given the local magistrates a discretionary power of fixing the hours of closing within certain limits. To satisfy the publicans, who objected to this power, the new Home Secretary proposed to abolish the concession. But when difficulties arose as to the hours of closing in country districts, he left it to the Licensing Committee to decide in what localities, being "populous places," publichouses might remain open till eleven instead of being arbitrarily closed at ten; and as no definition of "populous places" was given, the upshot obviously was that the discretionary power remained. Nor did Mr. Cross prove himself less vacillating on the question of the hours at which publichouses should be allowed to open in the morning—eventually observing that after all the question of hours was not one of principle but of detail.

When the measure reached the House of Lords, Lord Kimberley and Lord Aberdare aptly remarked that the changes which it effected for the supposed benefit of the publicans were absolutely insignificant, and that the new Ministers had practically approved the often abused legislation of their predecessors.

Sir Wilfrid Lawson, who of course opposed the Government measure, tried as usual to push his favourite "Permissive Prohibitory" Bill into existence, asserting that the principles and possibilities of the "free-traders" and of the "regulators" being entirely fallacious, his own party, the "prohibitionists," alone had reason and sound policy on their side. Wherever the system of prohibition had been tried in this country, it had produced the most beneficial results; and the failure of the Maine Law—which was not the same, he maintained, as this Bill—was attributable to the fact that public opinion did not go with it. The present system of licenses he showed, by various instances, had failed entirely: and though his Bill would not interfere with any licensing system, it was far better to trust the working men, and leave the matter to them, than to go on tinkering our present licensing system. He failed, as usual, in his crusade: the majority against him being a large one.

It so happened that Mr. Cross's Licensing Bill turned out to be the only one of the Government Bills announced in the Queen's Speech which reached maturity. Some were set aside, owing to the exigencies of time; some measures were introduced and carried by Government which had not been foreshadowed in the programme.

Among the contemplated measures of Government mentioned in the Queen's Speech which had to be withdrawn before the close of the Session, for lack of time, was the extension to Ireland of

"the rearrangement of the Judicature, and the blending of the administration of Law and Equity which were effected for England by the enactment of last Session:" also as to Scotland, to whose tribunals the greater part of those changes would be inapplicable, the introduction of a homogeneous mode of action upon Appeals. Besides two Bills which he brought in with a view to the objects aforesaid, Lord Chancellor Cairns proposed to amend Lord Selborne's English Judicature Bill of the previous year. His scheme, in few words, was that the provisions made for the system of English Judicature should be extended to Ireland; that the new Supreme Court of Appeal should exercise jurisdiction over Irish and Scotch as well as English cases; and that with regard to the Supreme Court itself, instead of the three or four divisions which in Lord Selborne's scheme were to exercise concurrent jurisdiction, the First Division should become practically the ultimate Court of Appeal, both from inferior Courts and from the other Divisions. The second appeal, which, against a great weight of opinion, Lord Selborne had decided to abolish, was restored in the plan of Lord Cairns; though with limitations apparently intended as concessions to Lord Selborne's feelings on the subject. Lord Redesdale proposed in the Lords to repeal the Judicature Act of 1873 altogether, as an unadvisable surrender of the old privilege of the House of Lords as the ultimate Court of Appeal. He was supported, however, by only a small minority; and the surrender was pronounced irrevocable. All the legal world had confidently reckoned upon the Amendment and Extension Bills being passed, and the juridical system of the United Kingdom definitely settled by the legislation of this year; but the unexpected turn which Parliamentary business took later in the season, necessitated the postponement of this as well as of the other legal measure, the Land Transfer Bill, also mentioned in the Queen's Speech; and all that could be done was to pass a "Judicature Bill Suspension Act," deferring for another year the operation of Lord Selborne's scheme, and leaving time for the future arrangement of the Amendments which were to modify and extend that measure.

It was destined to be on questions wearing a religious or ecclesiastical character that the debates during this first Session of the new Parliament assumed most animation and had most practical result. The "Scotch Church Patronage Bill" was one of those questions; two others were the "Endowed Schools Act Amendment Bill," and the "Public Worship Regulation Bill." The Scotch Church Patronage Bill was introduced on behalf of Government into the House of Lords by the Duke of Richmond on May 18. Its object was to abolish the system of lay patronage in the Established Kirk, and make it over to the congregation. The Duke expressed his belief that the contemplated measure would give renewed strength and vitality to the Establishment, which he regarded as a blessing to the country in affording an example of a public profession of religion. This question of

patronage had agitated the people of Scotland, he said, for the last 300 years, during which period presentations by individuals had been twice taken away and twice restored. In recent years various resolutions adopted by the General Assembly showed that dissatisfaction was felt with the existing state of things. He went on to say, it might be objected that by dealing with patronage in Scotland a precedent would be established for dealing with patronage in England; but there really was no similitude between the two cases, and in proof of this he mentioned that the value of advowsons in Scotland was only one year's purchase, and that a strong reason for dealing with the question was afforded by the fact that, practically speaking, the right of the patron in Scotland was, in a great majority of cases, abolished. The Bill, which he should ask the House to read for a first time, was a short one, having for its object the abolition of all Church patronage from the Crown downwards, and the creation of a constituency by whom the minister of a congregation might be selected. He did not mean to create any fancy qualification for this constituency, but would take that which existed in other Presbyterian bodies in Scotland, and would propose that the patronage should be vested in the male communicants. With regard to compensation to patrons, the Bill would enact that it should not exceed one year's stipend, and he believed that in the great majority of cases the patrons would not require compensation at all.

On the order for the Second Reading, which was opposed by Lord Selkirk, the Duke of Argyll made an important speech in favour of the Bill. He considered that the proposed compensation to the patron of one year's stipend of the living was excessive; that the choice of the minister should be left in the hands of the congregation generally, not of communicants only; that merely honorary members of the Church, however, should not be allowed a voice in the election. Replying to the objection that all the evils of a popular election would be brought into the parishes should this measure become law, he said:—

“In England I am aware that the popular election of ministers does often produce considerable confusion, but in England it is the old constitutional system that the people shall in one form or another have a decided voice in the selection of their ministers. They are accustomed to the exercise of that power, and after twenty-five years of experience in regard to patronage I say, in answer to my noble friend, that the ministers whom I have allowed the congregation to select have been uniformly satisfactory. I can say more. At first I used not to consult the congregations so generally as I do now; but I must admit that the ministers selected by them have on the whole been better men and more satisfactory ministers than those whom I presented myself. I assert that the habits of the people of Scotland enable them to exercise this privilege with success. It is exercised in the unestablished Churches, and why should it not be also exercised

in the Established Church? At this moment there is a vacancy in the parish of which I am patron, and which is in the Vale of Leven, at the foot of Loch Lomond. Well, I could no more present any man I liked to that congregation than I could fly to the moon. The course I have taken when vacancies occurred was to consult my friend Mr. Stoddart on the subject, and I found that the congregation had better facilities than I had for finding out who were the best candidates. I have been astonished at a paper signed by Dr. Cooke, the leader of a small minority who are opposed to this Bill. It states that the people have not the same opportunity as a patron of finding out the qualifications of presentees. My opinion is that the people are much better qualified than the patrons. There is nothing worse than forming a judgment from testimonials, and your Lordships must remember that the clergy of the Established Church of Scotland do ~~not~~ occupy so high a social position as the clergy of the Established Church of England. Many of your Lordships have personal friendships formed at Oxford or Cambridge with clergymen whom they know to be men of the highest Christian character, but we have not, generally speaking, the same personal knowledge of the presentees in the Church of Scotland. Consequently we must rely, to a great extent, on the testimony of others, and I have usually found that such testimony is entirely unsatisfactory. I now wish to say a few words on the conduct of the General Assemblies of the other Presbyterian Churches, and in the first place I beg your Lordships to observe that none of them have petitioned against this Bill. They have violently abused the Government for venturing to introduce it, but they have not themselves ventured to oppose it. The finding of the Free Church is the most comical document I ever read. I will not trouble your Lordships with the words, but it amounts to this: 'We have nothing to say to the merits of this Bill. We do not feel that we have any business with it. As regards the interests of the Established Church, and how far it will promote those interests, we do not consider ourselves entitled to express an opinion.' And then they proceed to remark: 'As regards the general welfare of Scotland, however, we have a right to say something;' and then they remark that it is extremely unbecoming of the House of Lords to consider a Bill for advancing the interests of the Established Church without first consulting them—although they have nothing to do with it. Neither the Free Church nor the United Presbyterian Church have ventured to oppose this Bill, because they know it is in general unison with the whole feelings of the people of Scotland, and that it is precisely the solution of the difficulty as regards the election of the ministers which they have themselves adopted. There is no hope whatever of the reunion of the Free and Established Churches, except on the ground of 'disestablishment, for, independently of principle, there are insurmountable physical difficulties in the

way. Nine hundred ministers are supported by voluntary contributions; and what would become of them in the event of reunion? Why, my Lords, they would starve. This Bill, if carried, will make it much more easy for families and individuals to pass from one Church to another; but that, I venture to say, is not an argument which will weigh with your Lordships or with the House of Commons. In conclusion, I have only to say that, although I have suggested to my noble friend certain amendments which I should be very glad to see the Government adopt if they are consistent with the principle of this Bill, I will not endanger the passing of it by endeavouring to force upon them any amendments which they cannot conscientiously adopt. It is a Bill which has been conscientiously framed on the ancient principles of the Church of Scotland. It has been accepted by an overwhelming majority of the great representative body of the Church, and it is a Bill which, if carried, is calculated to do great good in Scotland. But I venture to say if my noble friend should unfortunately accept any amendments which tend to give a vote to the general body of ratepayers without any distinction of religious sect—if no religious qualifications are to be required of those who wish to vote for ministers of the Church of Scotland—I for one will not accept this Bill, and I shall vote against it at every stage. I will be no party to giving Church patronage into hands less worthy than those that now hold it. I will be no party, above all, to any measure which brings a principle of confusion into constitutional societies, and invades, as I think, one of the cardinal principles of the Church.”

But the chief Parliamentary interest connected with the measure was on occasion of its introduction into the House of Commons by the Lord Advocate on July 6. Mr. Baxter, in the interest of the Nonconformists, moved an Amendment against the principle of the measure, declaring it inexpedient to legislate without further inquiry and information. From one point of view, he admitted that this was an extreme Liberal measure, and it was supported by some on the express ground that it would lead directly to disestablishment; but he insisted that neither the Government nor the House of Commons had sufficient information of the ecclesiastical position and the feelings of the people of Scotland to be able to legislate satisfactorily. A Royal Commission or a Select Committee ought to be appointed to acquire this information. Another objection which he urged to the Bill was its assumption that the Establishment was the Church of the people, whereas it contained only one-third of the people; and he objected also to the unprecedented powers given to the Ecclesiastical Courts. His speech had been ended and replied to, when, unexpectedly, another opponent of the Bill stood up in the person of Mr. Gladstone. The Achilles of the Liberal party had been drawn by the scent of theological strife from his tents. He had entered the House quietly while the questions were pro-

ceeding, and had been in his seat some time before the discovery of his presence spread through the assembly. Consequently no demonstration had greeted his arrival. But when he stood at the table, in full view of the House, a ringing cheer of welcome came from the Liberal benches, and for some moments prevented him from commencing his speech. When he did find a hearing his words flowed in one of those strains of copious eloquence which were wont to convey his thoughts on any subject that immediately excited him, whether the subject itself were one of wide or limited interest. He opposed the Bill on three grounds: the exclusion of "heritors" from all share, as such, in the election of ministers; the omission of any provision calculated to meet the case of the Highland parishes; and the alleged injustice which the abolition of patronage would do to the Free Church. On the last head, he said:—

"The Bill now before the House amounts to a cry of *Peccavi*, but if it is also an admission of wrong and a confession of penitence, let me say that restitution is an absolutely indispensable means of testing its sincerity. What are you going to do for these people whom you drove out of the Established Church and compelled to find ministers for themselves, to build churches, mansees, and schools; and, in fact, to organise and pay for the establishment of a complete system of Church government? You compelled them to do all this, and now you say you are going to adopt the principles into which you drove them. You do not offer to receive them back in bodies. If you did I would at once withdraw my opposition to the Bill we are now discussing. If the General Assembly will, on terms of fraternal equality, communicate with the Dissenting bodies and endeavour to bring about an union of equality, I will assist them to the full extent of my power; but I say that the course proposed by the Bill is neither fair nor generous, and is not one to which I can give my support. If I am asked what information I want, in the sense of the motion which my right hon. friend has brought forward on his own responsibility, and to which I cannot refuse my support, I answer that I want to know what the General Assembly has done towards reuniting itself to bodies which it turned out holding the view which forms the basis of the present Bill. . . . There was scarcely any disestablishment movement in Scotland until the date of the introduction of this, I do not call it bad, but crude, premature, and insufficiently considered Bill. But is it true that there is no promise of a disestablishment movement in Scotland now? What has happened since the announcement of this Bill? The representatives of 1,200,000 of the Scottish people have in their General Assembly declared for disestablishment. The hon. member is glad there is little direct opposition. Does the learned lord like that kind of indirect opposition? Does he think it really desirable to force those 1,200,000 or those 800,000 persons, men, women, and children—and they appear to have quite as fair a chance under his Bill as anybody else—does he think it well to

force that great Free Church into the attitude of disestablishment and disendowment? As I have said, it no longer rests on speculation. Those men have met in their Assembly, and by a very large majority for the first time in their history declared in favour of disestablishment. There were 295, as I understand the number, against 98, those 98 not voting in favour of establishment, but for the previous question. I do not wish myself to be responsible for raising the controversy for establishment in Scotland. I am not an idolator of Establishments. Neither am I one of those who would wish to raise a controversy of that kind excepting under very strong justifying circumstances, and excepting with a perfect preparedness to abide the issue of that contest. If the cheer we have just heard—and it was perhaps very natural—was intended to imply that I am a great enemy of Establishments because I used every effort in my power to put an end to an Establishment in Ireland, I must say, in answer to that cheer, that I do not repent the part that I took. So far from repenting it, if I am to have a character with posterity at all—supposing posterity is ever to know that such a person as myself existed in this country—I am perfectly willing that my character should be tried simply and solely by the proceedings to which I was a party with regard to the Irish Church. I would recognise distinctions that are founded in the nature of things. In Scotland there has been no general movement of principle towards disestablishment; and although an Established Church in a minority is an anomaly, it is an anomaly which I was well content to tolerate, and which the masses of the people of Scotland were justly and wisely content to tolerate, and not to be guided by abstract principles but by a careful regard to the state of facts. But when in that state of things the Government throws down the challenge before them, proposes to invest this ecclesiastical body, or even the committee or commission of it, with powers never before entrusted to an ecclesiastical body, but which will infallibly be quoted in support of high clerical pretensions in other quarters, and when in doing that it does it, as the learned lord says, in the sense of strengthening the Established Church, but declining to recognise for every practical purpose the existence of those great Presbyterian communities whom you drove out and compelled to become Dissenters, entirely declining to recognise them, excepting as bodies from whom you may make a certain profit by withdrawing one adherent from them here and another from them there—that is a challenge to them to take up the question of the public and national endowment of religion such as was never before issued by a Government under any circumstances, and such as, in my opinion, it is totally inconsistent with prudence and wisdom to issue. If we have been rash—which I do not admit—our rashness will certainly fade into utter insignificance by the side of the gratuitous hardship, as it appears to me, that determines to initiate a religious war in Scotland under the influence of the best motives, but under circum-

stances the most slippery and dangerous. I see, Sir, no mode of materially interfering, as I have said, with the provisions of this Bill in Committee; but as I think it unwise to provoke this war, unwise to throw nearly a moiety of the population of Scotland into the ranks of disestablishment, and thus excite a fierce and probably a prolonged and bitter controversy, I must, while admitting a hostility to the principle of patronage to lie at the root of Scottish Presbyterianism, support the amendment of my right hon. friend, which I interpret as meaning that other steps ought to be taken, steps of justice, of propriety, of prudence—I might even say, of decency—towards the non-established bodies before we proceed to constitute the singular and unexampled condition of privilege which is the immediate object of this measure.”

After speeches by Sir W. Stirling Maxwell and other Scotch members, Mr. Disraeli rose, and in lively terms expressed his satisfaction at the reappearance of the Opposition chief on the field of battle, hoping, on his own account, that, as the conduct of debate was more difficult in his absence, his appearance that night would not be a solitary one. Replying to Mr. Gladstone's argument, he denied that the proposed measure was an abolition of patronage; it was merely an alteration in the mode of selecting ministers; and in what they had done the Government had acted on precedent. He defended with much animation the selection of the congregation as the constituency, and the amount of compensation proposed to be paid to patrons, and he pointed out that to substitute the Civil for the Ecclesiastical Courts would be fatal to the olive branch being held out to the United Presbyterians and the Free Church. The amendment Mr. Disraeli described as one of the oddest ever moved, for, while Mr. Baxter declared that the Bill was too late, by his amendment he asked that there should be further delay. Finally, referring to Mr. Gladstone's satisfaction with his Irish Church policy, Mr. Disraeli expressed a hope that his epitaph would not include the disestablishment of any other Church. The Second Reading was eventually carried by 307 votes against 109.

After delivering his speech on Scotch Patronage, Mr. Gladstone took his part in the two other debates affecting ecclesiastical principles, which constituted the main interest of this Session. One was that on the Public Worship Bill, which, after working its devious way through the Lords, had now come down to the Commons for discussion. It was, in fact, to combat this Bill that the ex-Premier had been immediately incited to leave his rural repose; the other contests coming on at the same time were thrown in his way. But we leave the consideration of the Public Worship measure, which took up the attention of Parliament till the time of prorogation, for another chapter; and here proceed to narrate the fortunes of the third member of the trilogy, the “Endowed Schools Act Amendment Bill.”

This was the one only instance in which the new Government deliberately attempted to reverse the legislation of the Liberal Administration. In the middle of July, Lord Sandon, a young nobleman, chiefly known in the Conservative ranks for his high character and an inclination to Low Church principles, brought in a Bill for transferring to the Charity Commissioners the powers at present held by the Endowed Schools Commissioners appointed by the Act of 1869; powers which at the close of the Session of 1873 it had been agreed to prolong for another twelve months, the original term of three years having expired. But, what was more important, it was also proposed by Lord Sandon to alter the definitions contained in the former Act, so as to restore to the Church of England the administration of numerous schools in cases where the Founder had recognised the authority of a Bishop, or had directed attendance on the service of the Church, or had required that the Master should be in Holy Orders. The view on which the decision of the late Act in such cases had been based was that in times when Nonconformity did not exist, when the Church of the country practically covered all the ground of religious opinion, the founder of any institution in which religion was to be maintained had no course but to commit it to the established authorities; but had such founder lived in days when different religious persuasions divided the land, there was no reason that he might not have sympathised with any one of the number, and a strong presumption indeed that out of a great many founders some would have been dissenters from the doctrines of the Established Church. Therefore, it was argued, and the late Parliament had acquiesced in the argument, the fairest course was to throw open to members of any religious sect all such foundations whose statutes should have been created up to the date of the Toleration Act.

It may have been that Ministers were piqued by the taunting assertion of the Liberal Press that they were tamely walking in their predecessors' steps and were afraid to originate any measures indicative of a reactionary policy, such as befitted those who had so long denounced their adversaries on "Conservative principles." Lord Sandon, at all events, was not afraid to commit himself to the assertion that the intention of the present measure was to reverse the policy sanctioned by Parliament when the Conservative party had been temporarily reduced to a state of helpless panic. His speech was a direct assault upon the Nonconformists, and did not fail to stir up an undesirable amount of sectarian animosity on the question of founders' wills and the character of the religious instruction to be given in certain schools. Lord Sandon was on safe ground in denouncing the Endowed Schools Commissioners, whose manner of executing their functions had not been such as to gain them popularity in the country; the business they had to do was repugnant to old-fashioned feelings in old-fashioned localities, and they had not been careful to humour prejudices. Had the

Bill been originally restricted to the transfer of their powers to the Charity Commissioners—as it afterwards came to be—it would have caused comparatively little discussion. The Division on the Second Reading took place on July 14, when Mr. Forster moved its rejection on the ground that it was retrograde and unfair. Its changes of policy, he said, were unwise and unjust, its changes in administration unnecessary and inexpedient. Under the first head, he argued that the clause which recognised as evidence of the founders' intention a direction to send the children to church, and to submit its rules to the Bishop or other ecclesiastical official, without any limitation as to the date of the Toleration Act, would practically hand over to the Church and to the control of Churchmen numerous schools which were intended for the nation at large. In illustration of the unfairness of this proposal, Mr. Forster pointed out that of 1,082 grammar schools, 584 were founded before the Toleration Act; 35 were pre-Reformation schools; 44 were founded during the Commonwealth. But where was this policy to end? The arguments by which this part of the Bill was supported would apply with more force to the repeal of the University Tests Act. Without pretending to say that the Commissioners had acted with perfect discretion in every case, Mr. Forster warmly eulogised their general services in the cause of Education, pointing out that only ten of their schemes had been challenged in Parliament, and that in numerous cases they had acted in cordial co-operation with the Trustees. The Charity Commissioners, Mr. Forster held, having for the most part judicial functions, were not fitted for administrative duties, and were, as it was, overworked; and the proposed arrangements, he contended, would diminish the responsibility of the Education Department. Above all, the House ought to know how many schools the new test of denominationalism was to apply to.

Mr. Gladstone, from his place as Liberal leader, spoke against the contemplated measure as “inequitable, unusual, and unwise.” Under the first head he maintained that the Church had no title to the endowments bestowed on her between 1530 and 1660—when no man could live outside her pale; and her title was in no way strengthened by the fact that the founder had directed Church instruction to be given to the children. He thus argued the point that the retrograde legislation was unusual and unwise: “This is a Bill for undoing part of the work of the last Parliament. It is in that respect unusual. I do not wish to deny or qualify or weaken the fact that the party which sits opposite possesses, after having been many years in a minority, a large majority. What I wish to point out is this, that the history of our country for the last forty or fifty years presents to us, as a general rule, this remarkable picture: The initiative of policy in almost every instance—I do not know of even one exception—both of administrative and legislative, was supplied by the Liberal party, and subsequently adopted in prudence and in honesty by

the party which is called Conservative. Take the financial—take the colonial—take any of the Departments; and I venture to say that you will find that this is a true description of the history of which we have all been witnesses. When the Conservative Government came into power in 1834, and again in 1841, after the first Reform Act had been the subject of a long dispute and much contention, there was absolute security in the mind of the country and full conviction that the party coming into office would not be so unwise and so unpatriotic as to retrace the steps taken by their predecessors. This is the first instance on record, so far as I have been able to ascertain, of any deliberate attempt being made by a Ministry at retrogression. I invite the right hon. gentleman who appears inclined to follow me—I invite hon. gentlemen on either side of the House to tell me, do they know of any other such instance, except, perhaps, the one which happened a century and a half ago? I allude to the case of the Presbyterian Establishment, which had been placed in possession of ecclesiastical patronage in Scotland in the time of William III. There then came a Tory Ministry into power, who, in the early years of the reign of Queen Anne, made an attempt at passing a reactionary Bill. This Ministry introduced the measure which we now hear so much about for the establishment of patronage in the Church of Scotland. This involved the repeal of the previous Act of William III. This is the only solitary instance to which Her Majesty's Government can refer. And what an instance!—an instance that brought about the passage of the Act which the same party now proposes to repeal, because it was an act of retrogression, and because it interfered with the integrity of the Presbyterian Constitution. That, then, is the only instance of any similar course that can be adduced in support of the ill-omened Bill we are now invited to vote for. If that be so—if this be a most unusual step—it is also as unwise as it is unusual. What does this Bill amount to? The right hon. gentleman who has just sat down has said that this is one of the legacies which have been left by the Liberal Government. Yes; there have been a great many legacies left by the Liberal Government. The policy which at present governs every Department of the State is part of the legacy left by the Liberal Government. The right hon. gentleman and his party ought to be more grateful for those Liberal legacies on which they will have to live as a Ministry. What are we now asked to do? The majority of this Parliament is invited to undo the work of their predecessors in office in defiance of precedents which I should weary the House by enumerating, so great are their number and uniformity. It is rather remarkable that what is now the majority is about to undo an Act which they had never opposed in its passage. I believe that the conditions with reference to schools before the Toleration Act and before the Reformation were carried in this House without a division. I believe I am even strictly correct in saying that this pro-

vision was not only agreed to without a division, but without an adverse voice when the Question was put from the Chair. Yet they now avail themselves of the first opportunity they have to attempt to repeal what they did not object to when it was before Parliament. Is this wise? Is it politic? Is it favourable to the true interests of the Established Church? Is it well that the members of that great and wealthy body should be represented as struggling at every instant to keep their hands upon the pounds, shillings, and pence, whatever else may be in danger? I am quite sure that there are multitudes of the laity of that Church who do not take this sordid view; but the introduction and promotion of a Bill of this nature, in defiance of all the principles of equity, will raise some such consideration in the minds of a large proportion of the population of the country. What has been the judgment generally passed upon us by foreign authors—men of the highest weight and importance in their respective countries? They have often told truths of which we should not be fully aware from our own observation. What have they told us of their judgment of the course and conduct of the British Legislature? If you consult any one of those great political writers who adorn the literature of their own countries you will find their language respecting us uniform. When they look at our political constitution they are struck by the multitude of obstructions which for the defence of minorities we allow to be placed in the way of legislation. They are struck by observing that the immediate result is great slowness in the steps we take, but when they refer to the consequences of this slowness they find one great and powerful compensation, and it is that in England all progress is sure. *Vestigia nulla retrorsum.* Whatever has been once decided—whatever has once taken its place in the Statute Book or has been adopted in our Administration, no feelings of party and no vicissitudes of majorities or minorities are allowed to draw the nation into the dangerous, though they may be the seductive, paths of retrogression. That is the principle to which we appeal; and, even were the rights of the case less clear, even were it equitable instead of inequitable for the Church to make the claims which are made in her behalf by the Government, most unwise would it be on the part of any Administration—and, of all others, most unwise on the part of a Conservative Administration—to give a shock to one of the great guiding principles and laws which have governed the policy of this country throughout a course of many generations, and the solidity and security of which is one of the main guarantees of the interests we possess, and the liberty we enjoy.”

The scattered ranks of the Liberal party had reunited for the contest. Nevertheless, after a Government speech from Mr. Gathorne Hardy, the Second Reading was carried by a majority of 82. Mr. Fawcett then tried to stop the Bill by moving an Amendment upon the motion for going into Committee, to the

effect that "in the opinion of the House it is inexpedient to sanction a measure which will allow any one religious body to control schools that were thrown open to the whole nation by the policy of the last Parliament." The Division on this Amendment showed a reduction of the Government majority from 82 to 61.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer made a moderate and liberal speech, explaining the part which he and Lord Derby had taken in Lord Clarendon's Schools Inquiry Commission, and pointing out that if the recommendations of that Commission, which was in favour of using the Charity Commissioners, assisted by local machinery, had been followed, this difficulty would have been avoided. The Charity Commissioners were ready to undertake this duty, which they thought they could perform satisfactorily, and in thus transferring it to them he denied that any slur was cast on the Endowed Schools Commission. Examining the various alternatives which lay before the Government, he showed that the arrangement now suggested was the wisest, and he explained that the object of Lord Sandon's amendment, though it would make no difference in the operation of the Bill, would make it plainer that its intention was not to exclude Nonconformists from the governing bodies, but to provide that religious instruction should be given in these schools in accordance with the intentions of the founder. The Government would have the greatest repugnance to excluding the great body of the Nonconformists, and the precise words by which this could be done was a matter which could best be settled in Committee.

Mr. Lowe, after adding a few words to the general chorus of censure addressed to Lord Sandon from the Opposition side of the House, went on to argue against the proposal to transfer the control of the Endowed Schools to the Charity Commissioners, who, after a few years of honest discharge of duty, would be broken down by the weight of unpopularity it would bring on them. He showed next how the new point of departure for deciding on the denominational character of a school would add some 400 or 500 schools to the Church of England, and warned the Conservative party that it was preparing for itself future misfortune by giving its opponents a new grievance to remedy. But his chief objection to the Bill was that it reversed the well-settled rule of party warfare that a measure once passed should have a fair trial before any attempt was made to reverse it. This was the old policy of *væ victis*, and, though he hoped the Liberals would not retaliate when their turn came, he was afraid they would, and such a game of see-saw Mr. Lowe feared would degrade the House of Commons to the level of Foreign Legislatures where party quarrels were carried almost to the length of personal violence.

It became evident that the Bill could not pass in its then state without further long and vehement discussion, during which the consolidation of the Liberal party would continue to advance, while the differences between the supporters of Government would

become only more and more declared. Two days of business in Committee confirmed this view; and when the Bill next came on for debate, on the 24th, Mr. Disraeli announced the abandonment of the Foundation Clauses, and the restriction of the measure to the mere abolition of the Endowed Schools Commissioners and the transfer of their powers to the Charity Commissioners. His utterance on the occasion was somewhat strange, people said, as coming from a Prime Minister. He noticed the fact that the disputed clauses had given rise to great difference of opinion as to their construction and meaning, and declared that although the confession might seem to prove his incapacity to fill the position he occupied, he must confess that after hours of anxious consideration, the clauses were unintelligible to him. He had accepted them on the faith of "the adepts and experts" to whom he had looked for instruction in such matters; they had failed him, and the meaning of these clauses of his own Bill was obscure and hidden from his comprehension. They would therefore be withdrawn, and the Bill reduced to the smaller compass above mentioned, while the Government would postpone to another Session the amendments in the law which they might deem necessary. Mr. Disraeli scarcely made his position as Head of the Government better when, a few days later, having to give the names of the three Commissioners who were to take the Endowed Schools business upon them, he took occasion to observe that Lord Sandon was not, as had been reported, alone responsible for the Bill which had been under discussion. The Bill was the Bill of the Cabinet, and had been prepared by Ministers in common. He had himself requested his noble friend to introduce it, as the organ of Government and the representative of the Educational Department in the House of Commons, from his habitual wish to "give a chance" to the "rising statesmen" of the day.

Mr. Gladstone had his triumph. He made a long speech, in which he said the country would now have an opportunity of judging of the Conservative policy. All the legislation promised in the Queen's Speech was to be abandoned, and the only Act of the Session was to consist in the dismissal of three Endowed Schools Commissioners, because it was said they were the friends of the late Government, and they were to be replaced by three friends of the present Ministry. The Prime Minister had said some of the clauses of the Endowed Schools Bill were quite unintelligible to him. This was a most important discovery, and it was a great pity it was not made earlier, and then the charge of obstructive conduct might not have been brought against those sitting on this side of the House. It appeared to him that the pledge of the right hon. gentleman to call attention to this subject anew in another Session of Parliament was a pledge dictated by Ministerial exigencies and by the state of the relations of those in the Cabinet, far more than by any well-weighed consideration of what was to take place in the future. If that was so, he

thought the Nonconformists, and not they only, but those who attached an enormous value to the principles and methods of stable legislation, had good reason to congratulate themselves upon the present situation.

We proceed to mention a few of the miscellaneous subjects which occupied the attention of the Legislature.

No pressure of public business or prospect of early adjournment of Parliament could prevent the setting apart of two nights (June 30 and July 2) for the full discussion of Irish Home Rule. Mr. Butt opened the debate in a speech of considerable tactical skill.

Ireland's right to a Parliament of her own (he argued) dated from the introduction of English common law and Magna Charta into the country; and in a long historical retrospect he described how the Irish Parliament grew up, and how it had contributed to the prosperity of Ireland until it was destroyed by the Union. He dwelt at length on the manner in which this Act was obtained, asserting that the Irish people never had consented to it, and that the United Parliament sprang from a crime as black as the partition of Poland. Then he traced the history of legislation since the Union, to which he attributed the decay in the prosperity of the country, the falling off in the population, &c. Ireland no longer possessed Constitutional freedom, the Press was not free (here the House indulged in laughter), the Coercion Acts in force surpassed in severity the laws of any country in Europe. Exceptional laws embodying a policy of conquest had been passed for Ireland in every branch of the Administration. On these and similar points Mr. Butt expatiated with much fervour and strength of language, and, dealing with the charge that the Home Rulers were ungrateful, especially to Mr. Gladstone, he declared that it was only when Ireland could be made useful for party purposes that Irish questions were taken up by English statesmen. As to the practicability of the scheme, he referred to the example of the United States, Switzerland, Austria, and Hungary, &c., and urged, among other considerations pointing to a separation, that Parliament was notoriously overburdened, and could not get through its business satisfactorily.

Mr. Butt was answered, with promptitude and spirit, by Dr. Ball, the Attorney-General for Ireland, and by Lord Hartington on behalf of the late Government. On the second night of the debate Sir Michael Hicks Beach, Secretary for Ireland, Mr. Lowe, and Mr. Disraeli replied even more brilliantly to the Irish appeal. The Premier denied that the Irish had any more right to claim the exclusive management of their affairs than the English or the Scotch; but, whether we had one Imperial and one local Parliament, or one Imperial and three local, he foresaw the same muddle—"co-ordinate and competing authorities, and officers of State acting on policies totally distinct, and bringing about a course of affairs hostile to each other." From an amusing sketch of mem-

bers hurrying from one capital to another, and by telegraph trying to keep pace with their Imperial duties at Westminster and their Irish duties at Dublin, Mr. Disraeli passed to the grievances to be remedied. The Lord-Lieutenant was not an Irishman—well, but he is, at all events, an Irish duke. The high offices in Ireland are not held by Irishmen—but the Lord Chancellor of England is an Irishman. There are coercive Bills complained of, but the protest against them when passed must have been in “the local Parliament;” they were not heard in the Imperial. But the grand point of the speech—made peculiarly telling by the animation of the speaker, excited by the almost unanimous sympathetic cheering of a crowded House—was his allusion to “the conquered race.” He declared there was to him nothing more extraordinary than the determination of the Irish people to proclaim to the world that they are a subjugated people! “I have been always surprised,” he said, “that a people gifted with so much genius, so much sentiment, such winning qualities, should be—I am sure they will pardon me saying it: my remark is an abstract and not a personal one—should be so deficient in self-respect.” The remark caused great laughter. “I deny,” said the right hon. gentleman, raising his voice, “that the Irish people are conquered; they are proud of it: I deny that they have any ground for that pride.” The laughter here became uproarious. He went on to deny that Ireland had been pre-eminently conquered. England had been subjugated quite as much, but never boasted of it. The Normans conquered Ireland, but it was after they had conquered England. Cromwell conquered Ireland, but it was after he had conquered England. A happier piece of pleasantry and shrewd description of an Irish weakness was never listened to; and the right hon. gentleman concluded in words which literally brought down the House. “I am opposed, therefore, to this motion because I think involved in it are the highest and dearest interests of our country. I am opposed to it for the sake of the Irish people as much as for the sake of the English and the Scotch. I am opposed to it because I wish to see at the important crisis of the world—that perhaps is nearer arriving than some of us suppose—a united people, welded in one great nationality; and because I feel that if we sanction this policy, if we do not cleanse the Parliamentary bosom of this perilous stuff, we shall bring about the disintegration of the kingdom and the destruction of the Empire.”

After this debate the Home Rule question was dismissed for the rest of the Session. One triumph, however, the Home Rulers could score in their Parliamentary reckoning. It so happened that they brought to pass the only point-blank defeat sustained by the Government this Session. The question was an unimportant one, and Ministers had not been careful to bring their forces to bear on the occasion. Mr. Synan moved for a subvention of 20,000*l.* from the State Exchequer to support the Irish fisheries.

The representatives of both the late and present Government objected to the motion; but on a division, 95 votes were in favour of it, while 93 were against it. It was a bare majority, and no practical result ensued.

Mr. Trevelyan's annual motion for the Extension of Household Suffrage to Counties was negatived, on May 23, by 287 votes to 173. Mr. Forster argued in favour of the measure. The presence of a Conservative Government in office, he said, naturally led the country to expect a new Reform Bill. The extension of the franchise was a matter of urgent and pressing necessity. A Conservative Government, with a large county representation in Parliament, possessed special facilities for settling the question. Mr. Disraeli replied; and it was observed that while stating his objection to any present motion of reform, he significantly avoided condemning the principle of the measure, and reiterated his old professions of unbounded confidence in the loyalty and political capacity of the working classes. He protested against the doctrine that the distribution of political power is an affair of abstract right, and not of expediency and convention; and with regard to the class affected by the Bill he admitted to the full that they are as competent to exercise the franchise as the town householders. Mr. Forster, in arguing the case as if it affected the agricultural labourers only, had entirely ignored the diversity of the class of rural householders; and if this Bill were to pass not a moiety of those admitted to the franchise would be agricultural labourers. The condition, too, of the agricultural labourer differed in various counties; and though his material welfare had vastly increased during the last forty years, that was no argument for suddenly investing him with the franchise, especially at a time when the class was agitated by a stir which was confined entirely to social and commercial improvements, and did not in any way arise out of a sense of oppression. But his chief objection to the Bill was that it aimed at introducing a large class of persons to the franchise without dealing with the question of redistribution of political power; and in answer to Mr. Forster's way of meeting this argument he pointed out to him that the Reform Act of 1867 redistributed forty-five seats, of which twenty-five were given to the counties. What the character of the redistribution consequent on this Bill would be, Mr. Disraeli illustrated by a series of elaborate and exhaustive statistics. The boroughs of England and Wales contain 1,800,000 inhabited houses, contributing to the register 1,250,000 voters, while the counties contain 1,800,000 inhabited houses, with 720,000 voters. Assuming that the county householders would come upon the register in the same proportion as in the towns, the county voters under this Bill would be 1,740,000, or about half a million more than the town voters; and while the 1,740,000 county voters would only return 187 members, the 1,250,000 borough voters would be represented by nearly 300 members. A redistribution of seats was inevitable on the passing

of the Bill; and, premising that all redistributions must be in the direction of equal electoral districts, Mr. Disraeli showed that the combined effect of universal household suffrage and equal electoral districts would be to give one member to every 48,000 of the population, and, therefore, to extinguish 147 boroughs in England and Wales, thirteen in Scotland, and twenty-seven in Ireland. He urged, too, the extreme unwisdom of perpetual speculations on organic change, especially as we had of late years made such rapid progress in this direction, and had not yet had time to digest and assimilate our latest large meal of Parliamentary Reform.

A motion proposed by Lord Hampton—a peer newly made by Mr. Disraeli, and better known as Sir John Pakington—for the appointment of a Minister of Public Instruction, was negatived in the Upper House on May 22. His argument was that having noticed the steps taken for the advancement of public education, from the first vote of an annual grant until the formation of the Committee of Council on Education, he considered the Committee of Council to be anomalous, inconvenient, and without precedent in this country, consisting as it did of the heads of various departments who had other business demanding their attention. In 1868 it was stated by the Duke of Marlborough to be the intention of Mr. Disraeli's Government to appoint a Secretary of State, who should have the whole educational matters of the country under his control and responsibility, and this arrangement Lord Hampton declared to be exactly the one he now recommended for adoption, and he trusted that the Government would take his proposal into favourable consideration.

The Duke of Richmond said that Lord Hampton had not pointed out any serious defect in the mode of transacting the business of the Education Department; and the Committee of Council had this advantage—that it afforded the opportunity of consultation with those who had from time to time been members of it. He likewise affirmed that there did exist a Minister of Education at the present moment, for he, as Lord President, had the honour of being that Minister. He did not think that the time was opportune for appointing a Minister of Education, and therefore he must oppose the motion.

Lord Granville observed that Lord Hampton had failed to show that any practical inconvenience arose out of the present state of things.

Lord Colchester spoke in favour of the appointment of a Minister of Education, and Lord Grey maintained that there was nothing anomalous or unprecedented in the constitution of the Committee of Council.

The Ministry adopted substantially, and passed, Mr. Stansfeld's Rating Bill of the last Session, under the guidance of Mr. Selater-Booth; and also Mr. Mundella's late Factory Bill, which in effect constituted the measure introduced and carried by Mr. Cross,

limiting the hours of labour for women and children in textile factories to fifty-six hours and a half in the week.

Lord Salisbury's Indian Councils Bill caused a good deal of discussion. Its purport was to add to the Council of the Governor-General in India a member possessing special qualifications as a Surveyor of Public Works, and to be trusted with special powers for carrying out such works, which had hitherto been performed in a very expensive, inefficient, and unsystematic manner by the so-called Department of Public Works.

"In the time of Lord Dalhousie," said Lord Salisbury, "there was no Department of Public Works at all. All such works were then done by the Military Department, and were in fact part of the Military Engineering. Since that time the Public Works Department had been created, and its duties had grown enormously. Twenty years ago there were only twenty-one miles of railway in India; now there were 6,000. Since the same time there had been spent on irrigation works between eight and nine millions of money, about seven millions in Northern and a million and a half in Southern India. And the work which had to be performed by the Public Works Department was growing every day and increasing enormously in importance. Even before the recent panic there were irrigation works to the amount of eighteen millions of money projected by the Government of India, and which the Public Works Department would have had to carry out. And now that the present calamity had taught us to look to irrigation to prevent that which might, otherwise, be a constant periodical charge upon the Indian Revenue for the relief of famine, a number of other irrigation schemes had been prepared which would add largely to the work of the Department. An officer of whose ability it was impossible to speak too highly had submitted to the Viceroy a scheme which it was expected would have the effect in the future of averting famines in the North of India. He calculated that the cost of carrying it out would be about forty millions, and it was obvious that even that large amount would be well spent if by that means we could avoid the present necessity of spending six or eight millions every ten years. These were the prospects with respect to irrigation which the Public Works Department had before it. In connection with railways, also, the amount of work was very heavy. The 6,000 miles of railway constructed within the last twenty years had, no doubt, been made under the superintendence of the Government of India, but the actual work had been done by companies, who had invested their money under the guarantee of the Government. That system was now at an end. It had been found to be financially a wasteful system, and in future all the railways would be made by the Government of India itself. Lord Mayo, who was competent to form a just judgment in the matter, calculated that, in addition to the 6,000 miles already constructed, it was necessary to make 9,000 more, in order to furnish India fully with railways,

and of those 9,000 only 3,000 had as yet been laid out. It was hoped that by the use of the narrow gauge the expenditure would be about 4,000*l.* a mile, and if that anticipation should prove correct, it was calculated that sixteen millions out of a total proposed expenditure of thirty-six millions would be spent within the next four or five years. Some ten years ago there was a happy superstition prevailing that one might make a railway or an irrigation work anywhere in India, and it was certain to be remunerative. That notion had been entirely dispelled by the stern logic of facts. The railways—even the best of them—barely paid the interest of the money expended on them; and in regard to those that were to be constructed in the future, we must look for remuneration to the increased commerce and revived industry which they will cause. He doubted if in any one case—certainly if in many cases—they would repay the interest of the money which had to be raised in order to make them. It, therefore, became of extreme importance that the utmost skill and vigilance should be exercised in the construction of them in order that the burden on the revenues of India might be made as light as possible. The irrigation works were much in the same condition. He might illustrate his argument by a reference to the Jumna Canal an old Mahomedan work in the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab Eastern Jumna Canal, in which cases it would be found that the returns were distinctly less than the interest of the money which had been raised to construct the works. He mentioned these details in order to show that irrigation works in India, like the railways, were not the easy and certain matters they were sometimes thought to be, and that it required the utmost vigilance and the most careful organisation to secure that those works should not be a permanent burden on the already heavily-weighted revenues of India. It might be asked whether it was the Public Works Department which had not done its business well, and he was willing to admit that that department had shown great energy and public spirit. Finance, however, was not its strong point. He had laid upon the table of the House certain returns showing the relations between the original estimates of the department and the actual expenditure for the last three years, and it would be seen that there were no less than 300 cases in which the expenditure had very largely exceeded the estimate; the sum total of the whole matter being that, whereas the original estimate was 4,100,000*l.*, the actual expenditure was 6,700,000*l.* In stating that fact he was not seeking to throw blame on any individual. The weakness must rather be taken to lie in the system, and it was to remedy the state of things of which he spoke that he proposed to make an alteration in the constitution of the Council of the Governor-General of India by appointing to it a member for Public Works, who would be appointed by the Crown, and who would give his assistance in these matters. The Viceroy himself, he was bound to say, was

very much averse to having the number of his Council increased, and, although he did not agree with him on the point, he thought it well that power should be given which would enable the number to be kept down to its present level. Of course, the exact mode in which the proposed alteration should be carried into effect could not be decided until after further consideration, and the Bill was therefore in a permissive form; but he was satisfied it would have the effect of promoting that efficiency in a great Public Department which here the stimulus of an active public opinion tended to produce."

The Indian Councils Bill passed the House of Lords, in spite of the powerful opposition of Lord Lawrence, Lord Halifax, and Lord Napier of Ettrick, and in spite of the believed repugnance of Lord Northbrook to the contemplated increase of his Council; but in the Commons its progress was nearly stopped by Mr. Fawcett, who objected to the expense it would entail, and proposed its postponement until the Viceroy's opinion could be distinctly applied for and given. After a debate unusually lively for one on Indian topics, the Second Reading was carried on July 29. Mr. Grant Duff took occasion to say that Lord Northbrook's opinion was not really adverse, and that he did not desire to stop the measure.

One or two matters relating to the Royal Family are noticeable as connected with Parliament during this Session.

Prince Arthur, introduced by his brothers, the Prince of Wales and the Duke of Edinburgh, took his seat as Duke of Connaught among the Peers of the Realm. The Queen, in bestowing this title on her third son, evidently selected it with a special desire to gratify her Irish subjects. The Prince himself was popular. Living among the people, serving assiduously in the various grades of his profession, he had preserved an untarnished reputation, and won the esteem of all with whom he had come in contact. He was said to be every inch a soldier, and had industriously studied the science of war in each branch in which he had served. Taking but slow and regular promotion, he now ranked as a Captain in the Hussars, and it was felt to be quite time that he should play a more conspicuous part in the world, and exercise the high influence which by birth was his privilege.

The proposal from the Queen of an allowance for the fourth and youngest of the Queen's sons, Prince Leopold, was made by the Duke of Richmond, and carried in the House of Lords on July 23, and in the Commons the same day, unanimously; the sum voted being 15,000*l.* annually. Mr. Disraeli, in introducing the motion, remarked:—

"The delicate state of health of Prince Leopold has prevented him from adopting a profession which in the instance of his Royal brothers has been followed, I may say, by them with energy and success. Partly from that state of health, and in a greater degree probably from difference of temperament, his pursuits are

of a different character from those of Princes who are called upon to deal with armies and fleets. Prince Leopold is a student, and of no common order. He is predisposed to pursuits of science and learning, and to the cultivation of those fine arts which adorn life and lend lustre to a nation. It would, however, be a great error to suppose that for a young Prince of his character there may not be an eminent career, and one most useful to his country. The influence of an exalted personage of fine culture is incalculable upon a community. No more complete and rare example of that truth can be shown than in the instance of his illustrious father the Prince Consort. We can now contemplate the public labours of the Prince Consort with something of the candour of posterity. He refined the tastes, he multiplied the enjoyments, and he elevated the moral sense of the great body of the people. Nor has this influence ceased since he departed from us. Public opinion has maintained the impulse it gave to our civilisation, because it sympathised with it. It has maintained in the highest degree that great improvement which he introduced in the manners and the sentiments of the great body of the people. The example of such a father will guide and animate Prince Leopold; and, therefore, I hope I may make this motion which I have read to the House in answer to the gracious and confident appeal the Queen has made to the attachment of her faithful Commons."

Appertaining to the Queen's domestic interests during the Parliamentary season of the year was the visit of the Czar of Russia to greet the new home and the new connections of his recently-married daughter. We refer our readers to the Chronicle for details of this occurrence.

We reserve for another chapter an account of what proved to be the one considerable measure of the Session, over the discussion of which the forces of the Legislature showed a degree of animation hardly anticipated from the languid tenour of the ordinary debates, though the interest taken in the Endowed Schools Bill and the Scotch Patronage Bill indicated that Ecclesiastical partisanship was for the moment the most powerful lever for putting in motion the sympathies of the new House of Commons.

CHAPTER III.

Advance of Ritualism in the Church of England—Archbishops' Bill for Regulation of Public Worship—"Altar Cards"—Convocation—Change in Framework of the Bill—Second Reading—Speeches by Lord Shaftesbury, the Bishop of Peterborough, and Lord Salisbury—Amendments of Lord Shaftesbury, Lord Selborne, and the Bishop of Peterborough—Bill Re-moulded—Third Reading—House of Commons' Debate on Second Reading of the Bill—Speeches by Mr. Russell Gurney, Mr. Gladstone, Sir W. Harcourt, &c.—The "Six Resolutions"—Mr. Disraeli's Remarks upon them—Resumed Debate—Speech of Mr. Disraeli—Mr. Gladstone's Surrender—Second Reading passed—Mr. Holt's Amendment—Collision with the Lords—Speeches of Lord Salisbury Sir W. Harcourt, and Mr. Disraeli—Amendment given up—Bill passed Third Reading

THE advance of so-called "Ritualistic" opinions and practices in the Church of England has been very marked for several years past. Emboldened by the technical ambiguities of the Rubrics and Liturgy, and by the want of actual power on the part of the Bishops to check practices at variance with Ecclesiastical precedent, that religious party which desires to assimilate the "Anglican" worship as much as possible with the worship of Rome has bent its efforts towards the elaboration of a highly ornamental ritual, including vestments of various colours, processions, postures, lighted candles, and even images, the ultimate purpose of this ritual being to symbolise that materialistic doctrine of the Eucharist which had been abjured by the Fathers of the Protestant Reformation. As a writer in the *Quarterly Review* puts it, "For twenty years and more the most active efforts have been made to bring our worship into harmony with that of the Romish Church, and especially to assimilate Holy Communion with the Mass by 'insurionic' means." Two cases tried of late years before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, that of Mr. Purchas and that of Mr. Mackonochie, are instructive as furnishing details of practices which had been introduced into a National Church once glorying in its repudiation of Romish doctrine—practices which, though to their full extent confined to a few places of worship only, yet more or less were admired and imitated by a considerable number of the English clergy; while even of the High Church party not owning fellowship with the Ritualists, a large proportion was decidedly adverse to any interference with their extravagances.

In the large towns there were many congregations where fashion, or the female element, predominated, to whom these ornate symbolical services were acceptable; and those to whom they were repugnant could in such towns always resort to some other place of worship in connection with the Established Church; but in country places, where tastes were as a rule simpler, Pro-

testantism more affectionately cherished, and innovations more disliked, and where no alternative remained for the worshipper outraged by Romish imitations than the Dissenting Chapel, the grievance was a very great one. The popular religious feeling of the country, as a whole, was greatly stirred and vexed at the advance of Ritualistic practices—one of the most striking features of the movement being the lawless defiance of the higher authorities with which the curates and incumbents connected with it, proceeded, and the utter contempt they expressed of the Episcopal bench. Of the famous "Oxford movement" of forty years ago, the watchword was obedience to hierarchical rule, as its special boast also had been the adhesion of many men of the highest abilities and learning. Of the new "Ritualistic" movement, the practice was unlimited self-assertion, and that by men not marked by superiority of intellectual distinction. The absence of any eminence of this kind among its leaders was notorious. But they found a substitute for it in the hold which they gained over the fanciful or docile by the enforcement of auricular confession as a practice necessarily connected with the doctrine of priestly absolution. The institution of the "Confessional" was of frequent occurrence in the fashionable churches of Belgravia, and was by no means confined to them. In short, to the eyes of many, the Established Church stood in great danger of being handed over by disloyal sons to the priestly superstition from which it had set itself free in the sixteenth century; and it was felt that if the official guardians of that Church, the Bishops, could or would do nothing to stay the process, a wide disruption of its members must be the consequence. Certainly there were many now within its pale who would far rather take up with Free Church independence than acquiesce in the inculcation of dogmas which Ridley and Latimer had been burnt for abjuring. In 1867 a Ritual Commission had been issued to inquire into the extent of the evil complained of, and had drawn up a Report with some mild suggestions for settling difficulties; but, as usual, the matter had been allowed to drop.

On May 5, 1873, an address, signed by 60,000 persons of weight and influence, was laid before the two Archbishops at Lambeth, drawing attention to the pressing importance of the matter, and suggesting remedies. In their reply the Archbishops admitted the existence of the evil, but there for a time again the affair rested, and it was supposed that the old maxims of caution and of the necessity of balancing the Church between rival parties would prevail in the Episcopal mind over any desire for Legislative action; while as the tediousness and great expense of litigation in the existing state of things must needs prove an obstacle to repeated prosecutions, the advance of the Ritualists was likely to be out of all proportion to their checks.

But early in the present year it was well known that the Episcopal body had it in contemplation to lay before the Houses

of Parliament a measure, based upon the recommendations of the Ritual Commission, which should bring the vagaries of the clergy more within the control of their congregations, and give the official supervisors of the Church increased power of checking such practices as might be deemed inconsistent with the character of the Establishment. When the intention oozed out—it is said through one of the leading journals—the Ritualists raised an angry storm of reproach, and the High Church party in general deprecated the projected interference. In defence of the measure it was urged that it was not intended to operate against one party only; that those whose fault lay in unduly neglecting Rubrics and Church forms would be liable to be called to account as well as those who erred in exaggerating and adding to them: but this was small consolation to the advocates of a movement which, as they well knew, implied systematic defiance of Protestant limitations and of Church of England Bishops.

The Archbishop introduced the new Bill into the House of Lords on April 20. Its provisions in this its original framework were that to the Bishop should be given that directory power as to worship, which, from sundry places in the Canons and the Prayer Book, would seem to have been intended in the constitution of the Church. He was to be guided by the advice of a Board of Assessors, clerical and lay. Supposing that any one parishioner, or the Rural Dean, or the Archdeacon, should think that the practices of a given incumbent with regard to public worship amounted to a grievance, he should have a right to go to the Bishop and state it as such. If the Bishop should think it was a matter that ought to be inquired into, he should call his Assessors together; and if that tribunal should condemn the act or acts in question, the Bishop should issue his monition. But the incumbent might be allowed an appeal to the Archbishop with a Board of Assessors, whose decision would be final.

In his speech on proposing the Bill the Archbishop gave sundry instances of the excesses to which Ritualistic practices had gone. He adduced the case of "*Hibbert v. Puchas*," in which the Privy Council had pronounced the defendant to have offended "in having caused yourself to be censured when at the Communion Table previous to the commencement of the Communion Service, during the reading of which the lighted candles were extinguished, which were again lighted during the reading of the Gospel; and in having sprinkled or caused to be sprinkled with water and blessed or caused to be blessed palm branches, and distributed the same to those present, and caused to be formed a procession round the interior of the church; and in having caused persons called acolytes and a crucifer bearing a crucifix to stand or kneel around you, and in having taken from the holy table a vessel filled with black powder and blessed the same, and rubbed a portion thereof on the foreheads of certain persons; and in having censured and sprinkled, or caused to be sprinkled, with water previously

blessed, a number of candles." Again, the defendant was pronounced to have offended in causing a new acolyte "to kneel before the holy table, and reading some words out of a book and making the sign of a cross over him, and successively putting into his hands a candlestick and decanters; and in having censed, or permitted to be censed, a crucifix placed on the holy table during Divine Service." Further, he was charged with "having placed, or caused to be placed, on the holy table a large metal crucifix and covered and uncovered the same, and bowed down and done reverence thereto; and in having placed in the said church a modelled figure of the Infant Saviour, with two lilies on either side, and a figure or stuffed skin of a dove." The defendant was further found to have caused or sanctioned a clergyman to kiss the book from which he read the Gospel.

With regard to the Confessional, the Archbishop read the following extract from the *Church Herald*:—

"One thing is now necessary—the erection of the Confessional box or boxes in our churches. Other plans are more or less failures, and are attended with sundry disadvantages; that of hearing confessions at the altar rails may be all very well, but the sight of priest or penitent in that prominent part of the church must be rather distracting to persons who desire to say their prayers before the high altar. The objections to the use of the sacristy are too obvious to require enumeration. Mr. Bennett's 'little chapels' are far more desirable, but there are drawbacks to this plan also. The 'box' would remove all difficulties, would take away all mystery, and yet give quietness and ensure freedom from molestation; while the fact that the priest is to be found at certain hours in a certain place would remove many difficulties which now stand in the way of priests and penitents in the discharging of their respective duties."

"Unless I am misinformed," continued the Archbishop, "direct attempts have been made in churches not very far from the place in which we are assembled—at least, within this great city—to introduce the Confessional by means of partitions and curtains, if not by a regularly-constructed box, and so do the very thing which the writer of that extract says is so very desirable." He then called attention to another practice. "Allow me to mention to your Lordships the introduction of what are called 'altar cards'—cards placed on the holy table, and containing instructions as to the best mode of celebrating Holy Communion. I am told by a clergyman, in whose veracity I have complete confidence, that while on one of those cards there is one prayer in accordance with the ritual of the Church of England, there are several others which consist of invocations to the Virgin Mary and the Twelve Apostles, and that there are certain which are to be said in a low tone during the celebration of Holy Communion. I only refer to those cards to show that some of the things we have to deal with are of a very grave character. I can scarcely conceive that any

clergyman of the Church of England, at the holiest moment of the service, should do in secret what he dare not do in the face of his congregation—should recite in a low tone prayers which he knows they would condemn, and the whole Church would condemn, if he dared to recite them aloud. I call upon all those who glory in the name of members of the Church of England, who have no feelings of Puritanism in any form, but who have often fought the battles of the Church of England against the Church of Rome on the one hand and against Puritanism on the other, who style themselves Anglicans, and regard the Church as one of our great institutions—I call upon them to come forward and declare themselves manfully against such a desecration of the Holy Communion as a thing which all Churchmen should unite in condemning.”

This statement about the “altar cards” called up Lord Nelson a few days later, in answer to whose question as to the authenticity of his information the Archbishop cited the following inscriptions:—

“We offer to Thee this Sacrifice for the hope of those persons’ salvation and safety who pay their vows to Thee, the Eternal, Living, and True God, joining communion with and reverencing the memory—firstly, of the Glorious and Ever Virgin Mary, Mother of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, and also Thy Blessed Apostles and Martyrs, Peter, Paul, Andrew, James, John, Thomas, Philip, Bartholomew, Simon, Thaddeus, Linus, Clement, Sixtus, Cornelius, Lawrence, John and Paul, Cosmas and Damian, and all the Saints, through whose merits and prayers vouchsafe that we may in all things be protected by Thy safeguard.” And again: “Receive, O Holy Trinity, this oblation which we unworthy sinners offer Thee for Thine honour, and the honour of Blessed Mary and of all Thy Saints.”

He also cited the following passages from a book of prayers and directions in vogue among the Ritualistic clergy:—

“I confess to Almighty God, to Blessed Mary, Ever Virgin, to Blessed Michael the Archangel, to Blessed John the Baptist, to the Holy Apostles Peter and Paul, and to all the Saints, and to you my brethren, that I have sinned exceedingly in thought, word, and deed [here he shall strike upon his breast] by my fault, by my own fault, by my own most grievous fault.” . . . “Therefore I beg the Blessed Mary, Ever Virgin, Blessed Michael the Archangel, Blessed John the Baptist, the Holy Apostles Peter and Paul, and all the Saints, and you my brethren, to pray to the Lord our God for me.”

“If that is not an *Ora pro Nobis*,” said the Archbishop, “I do not understand the meaning of the English language, or the Latin words which are on the other side.”

The Second Reading of the Bill was postponed from April 30 to May 11 on the motion of the Marquis of Bath, and at the urgent instance of the Lord Chancellor, to give time for the Convocation of the Province of Canterbury and for the clergy in general to form their opinion on the subject.

The Committee of Convocation, after reporting vital alterations in every clause of the Bill, wound up with expressing deep regret that, even with the amendments suggested, they were unable to recommend legislation in the manner proposed. The Bishop of Lincoln declared the said legislation to be "penal, stringent, and coercive."

On the proposal for the Second Reading (May 11) the Archbishop of York alluded to the various criticisms that had been passed on the Bill, and especially to the expressed opinion of Convocation, and intimated the willingness of its proposers to remodel it on certain points. In fact, the following amendments were made in the draft:—Instead of one "aggrieved parishioner" it was to be three, acting in concert, or one churchwarden, by whom the complaint against an incumbent might be lodged; and instead of a Board of Assessors, clerical and lay, the Bishop was to be aided in the first hearing by his Chancellor or by one Assessor. If the Bishop should refuse to proceed in the case, the complainant might then appeal to the Archbishop, who might adjudicate. If the Bishop did hear it, still there might be an appeal from either party to the Archbishop. But the Archbishop, if he chose, might send the case at once for hearing to the Privy Council.

The Second Reading was not opposed, though Lords Shaftesbury, Selborne, Salisbury, and others stated various objections to it either in detail or in principle. But it was obvious that the measure now was not the same with that first introduced by the Primate; and the course taken was to commit the Bill *pro formâ*, incorporating the amendments in it, and so have it "re-committed" for real discussion on its merits as it should then stand.

In this day's debate there were several speeches of value and interest. Lord Shaftesbury objected to the power proposed to be bestowed on the Bishops. "As we are asked," he said, "to confer on the Bishops powers to affect the rights and property of many individuals, we are bound in duty to inquire whether they possess the requisite qualifications of legal knowledge and judicial training. . . . Why, in some respects, my Lords, the better a Bishop is as a Bishop, the less qualified he would be as a calm and dispassionate Judge. It would be beyond human nature to expect that a Bishop, sitting in power and authority in a Court, a man of earnest piety and zeal for the cause of religion, should not feel a strong, almost an irresistible, bias towards the decision that seemed to be the most conducive to the interests of the Church. My Lords, I am called a Low Churchman—and I dare say I am so—but I most solemnly declare that, even were I sure of Low Church Bishops for half a century to come, I would not confer on them the discretion contained in this Bill. No one, whoever he may be, ought to be entrusted with absolute power. . . . How, I ask, will this Bill reach the Confessional? Do not suppose that

very rapidly ; nor is it confined, as some suppose, to a few fine folks in Belgravia and the parts adjacent. It is penetrating into all classes of society. I speak from knowledge. I know the books—books, too, bearing the names of respectable publishers—by which the poison is circulated ; and I know how the minds of young and tender women of every grade are so influenced by their spiritual guides as to become familiar with things from which, at the outset, they would have recoiled with horror. I spoke to the Lord Chancellor on the subject, and showed him the passages. He commented on them, as you will readily believe, with just indignation. My Lords, if the Confessional continue unchecked—and checked it cannot be by any ordinary legislation—it will produce an entire change in the spiritual, moral, and political character of the English people, and will eventually sink the Establishment in inevitable ruin. Some one will say, ‘What, then, is nothing to be done?’ I see but two courses. One by creating a strong, persistent, and united sentiment of disgust, which, being publicly pronounced, shall penetrate into private and domestic life. But this is difficult. For though there is a party hostile to these practices, there is a powerful one in favour of them ; and the bulk of the nation is thinking of other things, and living in a state of indifference. The other, if it could not extinguish, might for a while retard, the progress of the mischief. I look to a wide, deep, and searching reform of the whole Church. But this no one will listen to. Yet certain I am, that a Bill such as this propounded to-night will leave all the greater evils as it found them, and we shall have reason to be thankful if it do not contribute to make them very much worse.”

The Bishop of Peterborough said that, as to the necessity of this legislation, he must frankly admit there was something anomalous, and even, perhaps, dangerous, in cheapening and sharpening the processes of Ecclesiastical procedure, when the law itself—as in any respect doubtful, ambiguous, and uncertain. “The natural and logical course of proceeding,” he said, “would be in the first place to let people know what the law is which they are expected to observe ; and then, if the law were found to be defective, to amend and simplify it, and then to take strenuous measures for its enforcement. To cheapen Ecclesiastical procedure before you reform and define the law may not tend to increase discipline, but to multiply litigation. In this instance, however, I contend we are under the unhappy necessity of proceeding more rapidly, instead of waiting to some remote period for a complete reform of the law. I say this not merely because individual acts excite, on one side or another in the Church, dissatisfaction, but because there are clergymen who tell their congregations that, law or no law, they will not read the Athanasian Creed, and who, if they receive the admonition of their Bishop, say that they will send it to their lawyers. We are told that we should govern the Church by fatherliness. Now, I must be allowed to say there

is something very one-sided in this cry for fatherliness from the Bishops when they meet with no filialness, and I should like to have some reciprocity. When a monition is to be flung back in my face, and I am to be told that I am 'neither a gentleman nor a divine,' and that 'my conversion is to be prayed for,' I must say that I should like to see a little filialness on the part of those who are demanding this fatherliness. I honestly desire, as far as I can, to be fatherly towards these men; but when I hear this advice given to us I am reminded of the solitary instance in which a ruler attempted to govern in this fatherly fashion, and that his name was Eli, while his sons were Hophni and Phineas."

Lord Salisbury took occasion to state the independent position in which the Ministry stood towards the Bill, at the same time indicating pretty clearly the direction in which his own sympathies lay. "Speaking on behalf of the Government," he said, "I have to say that we do not oppose the Second Reading of the Bill. At the same time we do not hold ourselves responsible for its introduction. We are not responsible for the selection of this particular moment for the moving of the question. Nor can we admit, what a noble Duke (the Duke of Marlborough) contended early in the evening, that it properly falls to Government to deal with subjects of this kind. Surely, if there be any duty which the Episcopal Bench has to discharge, it must be to take the initiative in a matter specially relating to the government of the Church. My Lords, no one can say that this Bill has been introduced without a cause. Whatever the difficulties may be which surround the subject, the lawlessness which a certain portion of the clergy have exhibited certainly calls for legislation, if legislation can be discovered of a kind which can check this lawlessness. I think an error has been made by the most rev. prelates in assuming that these lawless feelings are shared very largely by the clergy of the Church. I believe that the conspicuousness of the cases in which they occur is quite out of proportion to the number and influence of the clergymen implicated. But although the number of clergymen who act in contravention of the law is, I believe, extremely small, no one can deny that the lawlessness does exist; and it is difficult to condemn it in language which is too strong if you only consider the nature of the offence. Yet, when speaking of the acts of those clergymen, it is impossible to forget that which is attested by all who know either them or the sphere of their work—that in self-denial, activity, intelligence, in sacrificing everything for the cause they believe to be true, they are second to none and equalled by few among the clergy of the Established Church. . . . It has been too much the fashion to say, 'Never mind whether these people threaten secession or not; we don't care whether they secede or not; the Church of England will be better without them.' Undoubtedly, that statement may be true as applied to a very small number of very lawless persons; but it is very much the reverse of the truth if it extends to one

of those schools of which the Church of England consists. I doubt whether it is not very much of an anachronism to talk of secession in this matter at all. Secession has been practised from time to time by parties in the English Church. It has always left the Church weaker than before; it has always been ruinous to the prosperity of almost all the seceding parties themselves, with perhaps the solitary exception of the Wesleyans. I doubt very much whether, in existing circumstances, and in the present temper of men's minds, secession would be followed now. Secession means disestablishing yourself without disestablishing your opponent—it means yielding up vantage ground; and because any such course would bring, to my mind, the greatest evil which either the Church or country could suffer, I very much fear that if your legislation could be justly accused of oppressing a large party in the Church, that large party would not secede, but would rather seek to free the Church from its relations with the State. Anything more deplorable I cannot conceive; but men's minds are so excited, there is so much bitter feeling abroad, that such a course is not out of the bounds of probability; and as prudent legislators you are bound to remember upon what hidden embers you tread when you enter on the path of such legislation as this. I take it, then, that no more fatal act could be done than to interfere with or put in jeopardy that spirit of toleration upon which, as upon a foundation, the stately fabric of your Church Establishment reposes. There are three schools in the Church which I might designate by other names, but which I prefer to call the Sacramental, the Emotional, and the Philosophical. They are schools which, more or less, except when they have been crushed by the strong hand of power, have been found in the Church in every age. They arise not from any difference in the truth itself, but because the truth must necessarily assume different tints as it is refracted through the different *media* of different minds. But it is upon the frank and loyal tolerance of these schools that the existence of your Establishment depends. The problem you have to solve is how to repress personal and individual eccentricities if you will—how to repress all exhibitions of wilfulness, of lawlessness, of caprice; but, at the same time that you do that, you must carefully guard any measures which you introduce from injuring the consciences or suppressing the rights of either of the three schools of which the Church consists. On this condition alone—and it is this which gives the question its difficulty, and which imposes so intense a responsibility on all those who touch it—on this condition alone can your legislation be safe. If you accomplish this end; if you solve this problem, no doubt you will remove causes of irritation and conciliate many hearts and minds to the Church which are now alienated, and you will have done a good work. But if you legislate without solving this problem; if you disregard this condition; if you attempt to drive from the Church of England any one of the parties of which

it is composed; if you tamper with the spirit of toleration of which she is the embodiment, you will produce a convulsion in the Church and imperil the interests of the State itself."

On the notice of going into Committee, on June 4, numerous amendments to the second edition of the Bill were proposed. Of the amendments then and afterwards suggested, three stood forth as of chief importance: those of Lord Shaftesbury, of Lord Selborne, and of the Bishop of Peterborough. Lord Shaftesbury proposed that one Ecclesiastical Judge should preside in the Courts of Canterbury and of York, with a salary of 4,000*l. per annum*, to be appointed by the two Archbishops, with the approval of the Crown; and that before this Judge, and not before the Bishop of the Diocese, each case of complaint, if not dismissed by the Bishop as frivolous, was to go for trial. One appeal should lie from this Judge to the Privy Council.

Lord Selborne desired to give the provisions of the Act a less litigious character than they already wore, and to endow with validity a "monition" issued directly by the Bishop, if he should see cause to listen to a complaint; which "monition" should be subject only to one appeal, as before, in case the party "admonished" should dispute its legal soundness, as to the points in contention.

The Bishop of Peterborough's suggestion was for the recognition of a "neutral zone" of observances; or that, in regard to sundry practices, of which he enumerated seven, it might be left open to a clergyman of the Established Church to act as he chose, without being liable to complaint from any "aggrieved parishioner." The particular questions to be left open were:—1. The north side question. 2. The use of the words of administration to each communicant separately. 3. The use of hymns in worship. 4. Evening communions. 5. The preaching of afternoon or evening sermons. 6. The compulsory use of daily public prayer. 7. The use of the Communion Service. To these Lord Stanhope proposed to add the recital of the Athanasian Creed. Before its discussion in Committee, however, this amendment, which was ascertained to be distasteful to the outside critics of Parliament, was withdrawn by its author. Lord Selborne's amendment was opposed by the Lord Chancellor, and did not find favour in committee. Lord Shaftesbury's amendments carried the victory, and gave the final character to the Act.

The Third Reading passed the Lords without a division on June 25. Though it had encountered much criticism on its course—from Lord Nelson, the Marquis of Salisbury, the Duke of Marlborough, Lord Limerick, the Marquis of Bath, and from the Bishop of Lincoln, who desired to defer legislation till Convocation had had time to reform the Rubrics—no objector chose to take the responsibility of stopping the measure, or perhaps saw any chance of being able to do so, against the general tide of opinion. The special characteristics of the Bill, indeed, had become so much

changed since the presentation of the Archbishop's first, and again of his second draft, that many thought it ought to have been abandoned altogether by its original promoters, and given into the hands of Government, to be proceeded with as a Ministerial measure, or left to drop. But the resolution of the Heads of the Church not to let pass this opportunity of strengthening Ecclesiastical discipline overbore all other considerations, and they were content to take Lord Shaftesbury's version of the new tribunal as a working substitute for the direct Episcopal jurisdiction at first proposed.

The conduct of the Bill in the House of Commons was undertaken by the Recorder of London, Mr. Russell Gurney. Hitherto the measure had been one which, though it interested close observers of ecclesiastical affairs, did not very strongly agitate public opinion, and was deemed to lie outside the sphere of party politics. Ministers had been careful not to pledge themselves, as such, to its furtherance or otherwise. In fact, it was known that within the Cabinet considerable differences of opinion as to its merits existed. Lord Salisbury and Mr. Hardy were opposed to legislation under present conditions. The Lord Chancellor and Mr. Cross were in favour of it. The Premier had hitherto testified nothing but indifferentism.

All this was changed by the incidents of July 9, when Mr. Russell Gurney moved the Second Reading of the Bill in the House of Commons.

He began by assuring the House that the measure had been much misunderstood, and that, while it would facilitate the enforcement of the law, it would scrupulously respect the rights of every clergyman. To enforce this view, Mr. Gurney explained the existing state of the law, showing how cumbrous, dilatory, and expensive is the procedure under the Church Discipline Act, and compared it with the amendments proposed by the Bill. He laid great stress on the fact that the Bill created no new offence, that no doctrine was touched by it, and that it was intended only to deal with matters which had been pronounced to be unlawful. Among its other valuable features, he put forward prominently the improvement in the procedure, the appointment of a single Judge for both provinces, and the release of the Bishop from the position of prosecutor. Next he examined the objections which had been urged against the Bill, and the numerous resolutions which had been placed on the paper as amendments. As to the assent of Convocation being needed, he declared the suggestion to be contrary to all Constitutional doctrine and precedent; and as for waiting for a revision of the Rubrics, judging from what Convocation had already done, that would be tantamount to interminable delay. To say that a tribunal should not be established while the law was uncertain would be an argument against the Judicature Act, because there was much of our law that was uncertain. To Mr. Talbot's amendment, objecting to the payment of the Judge's

salary from the funds of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, he replied that 8,000*l.* a year is paid from that source to the Bishops' Chancellors, and that fees would soon drop in which would amount to considerably more than the Judge's salary. Summing up generally, Mr. Gurney declared that the Bill was directed against no party, and was in no way intended to contract the basis on which the Church was built. Its only object was to secure obedience to the law.

Mr. Hall moved as an Amendment to the Second Reading (accepting an alteration suggested by Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen), that it is inexpedient to proceed with an amendment of the law relating to the Rubrics while the law is in a condition of uncertainty. In spite of the numerous changes through which it had passed, Mr. Hall maintained that the Bill was still in a most unsatisfactory state, and that the best course to be taken was non-intervention for the present. When the clergy knew what the law was, like all other Englishmen they would obey it. To pass a panic-begotten measure at this moment would cast a slur on the loyalty of the English clergy. In time the excesses and defects on both sides would die away; but if the Legislature interfered, it would spread sectarian discord through every parish, would encourage reprisals, and lead to the ultimate disruption of the Church.

Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen seconded the Amendment, believing that the Bill would put a sword in the hands of the Bishops which, though it might be used first to cut down fantastic symbols, might afterwards be turned against doctrine.

Then Mr. Gladstone rose. He declared that he had never approached any question with more embarrassment than this, and he had been constrained to quit his retirement to point out the false issue which had been laid before Parliament, and to dispel the illusions and the ignorance which prevailed throughout the country in regard to this Bill. The difficulty in which Parliament was placed was increased by the unfortunate history of the Bill, which he traced from the first announcement of it by some "clever fellow" in the columns of a daily paper, and also by the departure from the usual practice that the heads of the Church and of the State should concur in any legislation for the Church.

"I believe," he said, "there never was a proposal on which there was a greater diversity of opinion. As far as I can ascertain, it is very unacceptable to many members of both religious parties throughout the country. There are a great many persons in these parties who can bear with tolerable patience the omissions or commissions of their adversaries so long as these things do not receive a direct consecration from the law, but who would have opposed violently the ingenious plan of the able prelate. For my part, I think it not impossible, although it might be far from easy, to solve by the means to which I have referred the greater part of the difficulty with which we have to deal. But what happened?

The plan was announced as a means of getting rid of the difficulties of the case. The practical application was postponed till the latest moment in order that there might be the minutest care and circumspection with regard to every point, and when the latest moment came the plan entirely disappeared, and the Bill passed without it. At the last moment, therefore, the character of the Bill was again totally changed by the withdrawal of a plan on the acceptance or rejection of which it depended whether the measure should be substantially one thing or substantially another. It has been assumed that its object was to put down Ritualism—with regard to which I may say, by way of parenthesis, that during forty years of public life I have found that in every one of them Ritualism bore a different meaning—and war has been voted against the Bill without the slightest notion of what was in it or what would be its legal or practical operation. In my opinion, we are in a position of great difficulty. We have a Bill not, I think, asked for by the Bishops of the Church. It appears to me that the right hon. gentleman is under a manifest misapprehension on that point. It is true that the Bishops generally voted for the Second Reading, but the Bill has undergone radical changes since the Second Reading. As it comes to us it has been manufactured, not by the two Primates, but by members of Parliament independent of them. Still it was in the first instance proposed and has since been supported by the two Primates. I have asked whether we ought not, when a Bill of this kind has proceeded from such a quarter, to show a readiness to sacrifice a good deal in order to give our assent to it. I am one of those who believe that it is not possible to deal with Ecclesiastical legislation under the conditions of the existence of modern Parliaments except by the assistance of authority brought to bear on the proposals that are made. I have always looked to the concurrence of the Government and the heads of the Church as the essential condition of a satisfactory solution of Ecclesiastical problems. It is no merit of mine that the Administrations to which I have belonged have acted upon that principle. It was under the Government of Lord Palmerston that we were first called upon to observe it, and by a strict and close adhesion to that principle we were enabled to settle harmoniously the difficult and delicate question of Clerical Subscription. But in this case, unfortunately, it has not been found practicable to adhere to it. There is not the amount of weight and authority attaching to the proposal which I could have desired. Still there is so much that I would have gladly assented to the Bill if I could have shut my eyes to a part of the case to which it seems to me the right hon. and learned gentleman has shut his eyes. The right hon. and learned gentleman has treated it all along as a mere question of procedure. It may be that the measure would be of great practical importance in that respect, but we have to consider it as dealing with something very much higher than procedure. I take my stand upon the broad ground

that a certain degree of liberty has been permitted in the congregations of the Church of England; that great diversity exists in different parts of the country and in different congregations; that various customs have grown up in accordance with the feelings and usages of the people; and, whether the practices that have so grown up are or are not in accordance with the law, I say they ought not to be rashly and rudely rooted out. I want to know whether the House is prepared to adopt the principle that in the services of the Church of England all unlawful omissions and commissions shall be deliberately and advisedly put down. I do not scruple to say that they ought not to be put down, and I am not to be frightened by anything which may be said to me about Ritualism, which, after all, is but the smallest part of the question with which we have to deal. I imagine myself marching into Belgravia. I go into, I will say, St. Paul's, Knightsbridge. I find myself surrounded by churches of which I believe some are 'High' and some are 'Low.' When Mr. Fuller was the respected minister of the church in Eaton Square, he good-humouredly said against himself that very unjustly they called his the 'Slow' Church. I am told St. Paul's is now the centre of one of the most remarkable and powerful religious agencies at work in London. These churches—St. Paul's, St. Peter's (Eaton Square), Belgrave Chapel, and St. Michael's (Chester Square), and so forth—are all carried on with zeal and with perfect satisfaction to their congregations. All of them are attended by enormous and crowded masses of people, and no two of those churches agree exactly in their usages. I want to know why that should not be so? Why is every one of those churches to be made to conform to the others? Nay, not to the others, but possibly to some three distempered members of one of them, or not members at all, for they may not have entered the church, but who, having a notion or crotchet of their own, may move a suit under this Bill. Therefore I say that, *prima facie*, the object of this clause is not wise. It is not wise to say to the whole of the congregations of the country—some 15,000 in number, and many of them very large—'We will not care one rush for all those local usages and traditions around which your holiest feelings have grown up. We have enacted a law and set it forth, and have established a Judge at 3,000*l.* a-year out of the money that might have gone to the curates of small livings, in order that you may all march, like the Guards, in the same uniform, with the same step, and to the same word of command, repressing all genial, intellectual, and spiritual life, and in a manner which, however it may glorify discipline, is fatal to that which is better than discipline, and that is freedom.' The 8th Clause is said to be qualified by the 9th Clause, by which it is absolutely in the power of the Bishop to stop any movement of the three objecting parishioners. I do not underrate the importance of the Clause; I want to call the attention of the House in the closest manner to its legal operation. The Bishop has the

power to stop an action. I have no favour towards Belgravia, nor have I any fear with respect to the general discretion of Bishops. It is easy to satirise them and find fault with them; but they are a most laborious and a most conscientious body of men, and I believe that, on the whole, they are in no ordinary degree a discreet and a wise body of men. But we have twenty-seven or twenty-eight Diocesan Bishops and Archbishops in England. The discretion of these Bishops is not collective, but single. Now, I want to know what security we have that every Bishop shall at all times be discreet, and then I want to investigate the consequences which would arise, and to expose those consequences to the view of the House, and to the view of the right hon. and learned gentleman, if at some period or other there should happen to be one Bishop who is not discreet. I have no individual in my eye; but I am making a general assumption. Even in a Cabinet of sixteen members, one member may prove to be indiscreet, and it is a very fair allowance if I admit that twenty-six of the Bishops are certain to be discreet, but that there may be a fear as to the twenty-seventh. Even if all the twenty-seven Bishops of the present day are discreet, still there will come some fussy Bishop, or some Bishop who loves power, or some Bishop who is fond of meddling or who does not join to discretion the quality of courage and who dare not say 'No' when to say 'No' would be unpopular. And therefore my anticipation and assumption is that at some time or other there will be an indiscreet Bishop. What will then happen? Not the archdeacon perhaps, probably not the churchwarden; but, at any rate, three parishioners from some corner or other, connected, perhaps, with some aggrieved class, or having had a quarrel with the clergyman, or who possibly have been rebuked for offences against higher laws than ours, will move in a case of this kind and point out an illegality in the services of the parish church. The indiscreet Bishop says 'Yes,' and the suit goes on. It is judged by the official principal of the Archbishop of Canterbury, or the Judge who may be appointed under this Bill, and it is not appealed to the Supreme Court of Appeal we are about to establish in Westminster Hall. If it is not appealed it becomes absolute law for the time being, and if it is appealed it becomes absolute law after the appeal has been decided. Through the little door opened by the indiscretion of the one indiscreet or timid Bishop, there comes in a judgment which overrides the discretion of the twenty-six wise Bishops and runs absolutely through the whole kingdom. Is it desirable, is it right, is it tolerable that it should be done? The House may fairly say to me 'You admit that something ought to be done,' and I am not prepared to take exception to the proposition. I will, therefore, state what I think ought to be done. In the first place, I think we can do nothing unless we acknowledge the debt we owe to the great mass of the clergy for their zeal and devotion. For eighteen years I was the servant of a very large body, and I

have never forgotten the many sacrifices they were always ready to make, and the real liberality of mind they showed on a thousand occasions. But this is a thing totally insignificant by comparison with the work the clergy generally are doing by the spirit they diffuse around them and the many lessons they impart. The eccentricities of a handful of men, therefore, can never make me forget the illustrious merit of the services done by the mass of the clergy in an age which is beyond all others luxurious, and, I fear, selfish and worldly. These are the men who hold up to us a banner on which is written the motto of Eternal Life, and of the care for things unseen which must remain the chief hope of man through all the vicissitudes of his mortal life. I do not think the House can be asked to refuse to deal with this matter; but I will point out two classes of difficulties with which we have to contend. The first is in reference to the illegality of proceedings in which there appears to be any design to sap the Established Religion of the country. I know well the feeling of this House to be one of honest jealousy of all efforts by means of secret and unobserved processes to alter the religion of England. But beyond that there is another evil which you ought to keep in view. In many cases where the habits of congregations are fixed it would be utter folly to tell every clergyman in every parish that he is to make everything square in all points with the ancient law. Why, most of the excitement which has existed in this country during the last forty years has arisen from the endeavours of clergymen hastily and precipitately to revert to the practices prescribed by the ancient law of the Church. Take the old controversy about the surplice in the pulpit. The surplice is, no doubt, the legal vestment, but it convulsed the city of Exeter, and might even have led to bloodshed. I would not be responsible for reviving what is now in many instances the dead corpse of legality itself as against expediency and long usage. Apart, therefore, from provisions of legality, I should like to see provisions against all precipitate and sudden change which might be introduced on the sole will of the clergyman against the general feeling of the people. These are rational subjects of legislation. If the right hon. and learned gentleman will so reconstruct his Bill as to give it a bearing on those subjects, I shall be very glad; but I have no evidence that he has by any means advanced to that point in his examination of the question. But I have on this subject the feeling that we are treading on the edge of a precipice, and that we may, if we do not take care, rush into the midst of evils, compared with which everything that we are suffering is really too insignificant to be thought of for a moment. I hope the House will not deem me presumptuous if I have put into the form of Resolutions what I think are the principles by which legislation on this subject ought to be guided; and in case this Bill proceeds, I would give notice that, on the motion that the Speaker leave the chair for the House to go into Committee on this Bill, I should distinctly raise the

issue on the grounds that I have endeavoured to explain in the remarks which the House has received so kindly. Perhaps I may be allowed to read the Resolutions, which are six in number, to the House. They are these:—

"1. That in proceeding to consider the provisions of the Bill for the Regulation of Public Worship, this House cannot do otherwise than take into view the lapse of more than two centuries since the enactment of the present Rubrics of the Common Prayer Book of the Church of England; the multitude of particulars embraced in the conduct of Divine Service under their provisions; the doubts occasionally attaching to their interpretation, and the number of points they are thought to leave undecided; the diversities of local custom which under these circumstances have long prevailed; and the unreasonableness of proscribing all varieties of opinion and usage among the many thousands of congregations of the Church distributed throughout the land.

"2. That this House is therefore reluctant to place in the hands of every single Bishop, on the motion of one or of three persons, howsoever defined, greatly increased facilities towards procuring an absolute ruling of many points hitherto left open, and reasonably allowing of diversity, and thereby towards the establishment of an inflexible rule of uniformity throughout the land, to the prejudice, in matters indifferent, of the liberty now practically existing.

"3. That the House willingly acknowledges the great and exemplary devotion of the clergy in general to their sacred calling, but is not on that account the less disposed to guard against the indiscretion, or thirst for power, or other fault of individuals.

"4. That the House is therefore willing to lend its best assistance to any measure recommended by adequate authority, with a view to provide more effectual securities against any neglect of or departure from strict law which may give evidence of a design to alter, without the consent of the nation, the spirit or substance of the Established Religion.

"5. That, in the opinion of the House, it is also to be desired that the members of the Church, having a legitimate interest in her services, should receive ample protection against precipitate and arbitrary changes of established custom by the sole will of the clergyman and against the wishes locally prevalent among them, and that such protection does not appear to be afforded by the provisions of the Bill now before the House.

("For the right hon. and learned gentleman will see that it is a part, and a large part, of my objection that a great number of these rash and precipitate changes will have to be made under the provisions of his Bill as they stand, and my contention is that they should not.)

"6. That the House attaches a high value to the concurrence

of Her Majesty's Government with the ecclesiastical authorities in the initiative of legislation affecting the Established Church.

"As I have pointed out an extremely broad objection to the provisions of this Bill, I have thought it would be hardly fair to the right hon. and learned gentleman if I confined myself to objecting, and therefore I have traced out, as well as I can, in a positive form, my views on this subject. I place these Resolutions on the table of the House, and I most earnestly hope that whatever may happen in regard to a matter so vital to the welfare of the country, the blessings of the Almighty on our labours may conduct them to a happy and prosperous issue."

Mr. Gladstone's speech, of which our extracts give but an imperfect idea, and of which the force was not a little enhanced by the animation of the orator, electrified the House. It was a declaration of uncompromising war with the Bill, and the discussion of the Six Resolutions, which went to the ground of the principle on which Churches are founded, promised to divert to a side issue of interminable talk the serious purpose of its promoters. At half-past ten Sir William Vernon Harcourt rose to reply, and in a trenchant speech criticised his late leader's argument, and defended the Bill.

"They had all been under the wand of the Great Enchanter (he said) to-night, and had listened with rapt attention as he poured forth the wealth of his incomparable eloquence. But as he listened with that admiration which they all shared to that magnificent oration, he asked himself in the progress of it—how the principles so enunciated could be reconciled with the principles upon which a National Church was founded? The speech of his right hon. friend was an eloquent and powerful plea against the principle of uniformity. But he could not help recollecting that the Church of England was founded on successive Acts of Uniformity. As he listened to his right hon. friend when he spoke of the advantages of variety of practice in different parts of the kingdom, and even in different parts of parishes in this metropolis—when he told the House that in different parts of Belgravia different practices prevailed—his mind went back to that ancient document the preface to the Liturgy of the Church of England, which, in the various changes the Liturgy had undergone, appeared in them all. That preface was drawn up by the great author of the Reformation—he believed it came from the pen of Archbishop Cranmer—and he would ask leave to read a passage from it, a passage known to most, familiar to them from youth, and which seemed to contain in itself a complete and satisfactory answer to the eloquent argument they had heard to-night. It was this: 'And whereas heretofore there hath been great diversity in saying and singing in churches within this realm, some following Salisbury use, some Hereford use, and some the use of Bangor, some of York, and some of Lincoln; now, from henceforth all the whole realm shall have but one use.' His right hon. friend the

Member for Greenwich invoked the name of Liberty—liberty for the clergy to do what seemed fit in their own eyes. But the answer to that plea, raised in that sacred name which we all revered, was given by the greatest of all Nonconformists when he said, ‘License they mean when they cry Liberty.’ He was in favour of freedom and comprehensiveness in the doctrine and the practice of the National Church; but that freedom and that comprehensiveness were to be sought and obtained in the breadth of her formularies and in the tolerance of her creed, and not in the individual judgment and personal license of particular priests. A National Church, as he understood it, was a Church founded upon the will of the nation; and the will of the nation was expressed in a definite form, in the form of that law which was established by the consent of the Queen and of the Parliament, for it was to be found nowhere else.”

Sir William then went into the history of the Acts of Uniformity, and the freedom of the Church legislation of the Reformation period from all control by Clergy or Convocation. Coming to the present time, he said everybody admitted that something must be done. The House of Commons could not deny that something must be done because the nation demanded that something should be done. In his opinion, that something would not come from Convocation. If it were to be of any use it must come from the Crown and Parliament of England. What was required by the nation, and what Parliament had to do, was to re-assert the unalterable attachment of the English people to the principles of the English Reformation. It was necessary to show that the National Church of England was in reality what it ought to be—the Church of a Protestant nation. If our law were defective, if our rubrics were obsolete, why, let them be reformed and enforced; but we must not set up the dangerous doctrine of optional conformity, which would allow any priest to do what he pleased and to set at defiance those principles of the Reformation which for three centuries had been established by the law of England.

This was a bold Erastian manifesto, and people said it was evident, from the defiant attitude assumed by Sir William Harcourt towards his former chief, that he was making a “bid” for the leadership of the Liberal party, whose allegiance Mr. Gladstone might have done not a little to forfeit by his present action. Sir William’s Protestant sentiments were loudly cheered by the House; and when Mr. Gathorne Hardy, who next rose to speak, indicated in his opening sentences a feeling of hostility to the Bill, he was met by such a noisy demonstration of disapproval from members on the Ministerial side that he was fain to pause and appeal for the courtesy of a hearing. He urged that the Bill should be deferred, stood up for the action of Convocation, and in general evinced agreement with the line taken by Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. Leatham, on rising at half-past eleven, was, before he had

been long on his feet, greeted from the opposite side by impatient cries for the division, which formed a running commentary to what nevertheless proved to be an able speech against the Bill.

After a short speech from Mr. Hubbard, Mr. Childers again moved the adjournment of the debate.

Mr. Disraeli was understood to say, though speaking in somewhat ambiguous terms, that he would consent to the adjournment, if it were the House's pleasure; and on Monday he would, after anxiously considering the state of public business, make a statement as to the possibility of finding a day for the continuance of the debate.

Some feeling being expressed, the House divided; and Mr. Disraeli and the great majority of the Ministerialists voting against the adjournment, the proposal was lost by 275 votes against 114.

Mr. Pemberton thereupon moved the adjournment of the House, but Mr. Disraeli, humorously protesting against the prevalence of "effeminate habits," and urging the House to "go on till four o'clock in the morning, or some other reasonable hour," the hon. member withdrew the amendment. A small minority refused to allow it to be withdrawn, and another division took place, 61 voting for the adjournment and 304 against.

After some further discussion, Mr. Disraeli suggested that a Wednesday might be allotted for the resumption of the debate; but this was scouted on a suggestion that the day afforded special opportunities for "talking out" an obnoxious measure, and the House once more divided—the figures being 112 for the adjournment, and 188 against it.

Mr. Beresford-Hope continued the debate, which was ultimately adjourned till the following Monday, and the House rose shortly before three o'clock.

It was evident that the Protestant tide was rising high in the House, and the Prime Minister took occasion dexterously to avail himself of it.

On Monday (the 13th) Mr. Disraeli made a statement to the effect that having considered most carefully the Resolutions propounded by the ex-Premier, "with the light of the interpretation which was candidly, and even profusely, afforded by the right hon. gentleman," he could "only arrive at one conclusion—namely, that they point to the abolition of that religious settlement which has prevailed in this country for more than two centuries, and on which depends much of our civil liberty." He thought it would be a great danger to the country if such propositions were not at once brought under discussion. Therefore, should the Second Reading of the Bill before the House be voted after the conclusion of the pending debate, he would give the right hon. gentleman an opportunity of bringing forward his Six Resolutions on the motion for Committee.

Two days afterwards the debate on the Bill was resumed. Speeches of considerable ability and interest were made by Mr.

Walter, Mr. Forster, Lord Sandon, Mr. Walpole, and Mr. Goschen, in support of it; a few other speakers opposing it. The critical moment was when Mr. Disraeli rose. After some preliminary observations, he said: "What is the object of the Bill we are now considering? I will first say what I consider is not the object of it. It is not the object of the Bill to attack any of the legitimate parties in the Church. Were it so, I certainly should not have facilitated the discussion of its merits in this House. I look upon the existence of parties in the Church as a necessary and beneficial consequence. They have always existed, even from Apostolic times; they are a natural development of the religious sentiment in man; and they represent fairly the different conclusions at which, upon subjects that are the most precious to him, the mind of man arrives. Ceremony, enthusiasm, and free speculation are the characteristics of the three great parties in the Church, some of which have now modern names, and which the world is too apt to imagine are in their character original. The truth is that they have always existed in different forms or under different titles. Whether they are called High Church, or Low Church, or Broad Church, they bear witness, in their legitimate bounds, to the activity of the religious mind of the nation, and in the course of our history this country is deeply indebted to the exertions and the energy of all those parties. The High Church party, totally irrespective of its religious sentiment, fills a noble page in the history of England, for it has vindicated the liberties of this country in a memorable manner; no language of mine can describe the benefits which this country has experienced from the exertions of the Evangelical school at the commencement of this century; and in the case of the Broad Church, it is well that a learned and highly disciplined section of the clergy should show at the present day that they are not afraid of speculative thought, or are appalled by the discoveries of science. I hold that all these schools of religious feeling can pursue their instincts consistently with a faithful adherence to the principles and practices of the Reformation as exhibited and represented in its fairest and most complete form—the Church of England. I must ask myself what then, Sir, is the real object of the Bill?—and I will not attempt to conceal my impressions upon it, for I do not think that our ability to arrive at a wise decision to-day will be at all assisted by a mystical dissertation on the subject-matter of it. I take the primary object of this Bill, whose powers, if it be enacted, will be applied and extended impartially to all subjects of Her Majesty, to be this—to put down Ritualism. The right hon. gentleman the Member for Greenwich says he does not know what Ritualism is, but there I think the right hon. gentleman is in an isolated position. That ignorance is not shared by the House of Commons or by the country. What the House and the country understand by Ritualism is, practices by a portion of the clergy, avowedly symbolic of doctrines which the same clergy are bound in the most

solemn manner to refute and repudiate. Therefore, I think, there can be no mistake among practical men as to what is meant when we say that it is our desire to discourage Ritualism. The right hon. gentleman the Member for Greenwich the other night said he was much surprised, on returning to the House, after being some time absent, to find Parliament very much excited upon Church and religious questions; and, further, the right hon. gentleman taunted the occupants of this Bench, and the Conservative party generally, for the great disappointment which he believed would be felt at such a result, it having been held out to the country that there was now to be a tranquil time, and that the attention of Parliament was no longer to be absorbed by discussions and considerations of such a character; whereas the fact was that we had tampered with those very questions. But I do not think that, as far as I am individually concerned, the taunt was deserved or was just. I can say most sincerely that I have never addressed any body of my countrymen for the last three years without having taken the opportunity of intimating to them that a great change was occurring in the politics of the world, that it would be well for them to prepare for that change, and that it was impossible to conceal from ourselves that the great struggle between the Temporal and Spiritual power, which had stamped such indelible features upon the history of the past, was reviving in our own time. I never spoke upon these subjects with passion, nor did I seek in any way at any time to excite such feelings in the minds of those I addressed. I spoke upon a matter which it was difficult for the million immediately to apprehend, and therefore it was not a topic introduced in order to create political excitement. I spoke from strong conviction and from a sense of duty, when I wished to direct the public mind, as far as I could, to the consideration of circumstances in which it was so deeply interested, and which could not fail to influence the history of the country. I said then, that it appeared to me to be of the very utmost importance—and I am speaking now of the time when I addressed a large body of my countrymen as lately as autumn last—I said then, as I say now, looking to what is occurring in Europe, looking at the great struggle between the Temporal and Spiritual power which has been precipitated by those changes of which many in this House are so proud, and of which, while they may triumph in their accomplishment, they ought not to shut their eyes to the inevitable consequences—I said then, and say now, that in the disasters, or rather in the disturbance and possible disasters which must affect Europe, and which must to a certain degree sympathetically affect England, it would be wise for us to rally on the broad platform of the Reformation. Believing as I do that those principles were never so completely and so powerfully represented as by the Church of England; believing that without the learning, the authority, the wealth, and the independence of the Church of England, the various sects of the Reformation would by this time have dwindled into

nothing, I called the attention of the country, so far as I could, to the importance of rallying around the institution of the Church of England, based upon those principles of the Reformation which that Church was called into being to represent. I do not, therefore, think that the taunt of the right hon. gentleman is one to which I am liable. But I confess I have looked forward, not without deep regret and apprehension, to the discussions which now occupy us, and which will much more occupy our time in the future, and with that sense of responsibility to which any man whose mind is open to the vast consequences involved cannot be blind. I wish, I may add, most sincerely, and in the strongest manner, that all should understand that if I make the slightest allusion to the dogmas and ceremonies which are promulgated by the English Ritualists, I am anxious not to make a single observation which could offend the convictions of any hon. gentleman in this House. Whether those doctrines which were quoted from authoritative writings and from books by the hon. Member for Berkshire—and which, I am sorry to say, are found on too many of the library shelves and tables of English clergymen—whether those doctrines are or are not adopted by them—whether they apply to the worship of the Virgin, to the Confessional, or to the various subjects which were quoted by the hon. Member—so long as those doctrines are held by Roman Catholics, I am prepared to treat them with reverence; but what I object to is, that they should be held by ministers of our Church who, when they enter the Church, enter it at the same time with a solemn contract with the nation that they will oppose those doctrines and utterly resist them. What I do object to is Mass in masquerade. To the solemn ceremonies of our Roman Catholic friends, I am prepared to extend that reverence which my mind and conscience always give to religious ceremonies sincerely believed in; but the false position in which we have been placed by, I believe, a small but a powerful and well-organised body of those who call themselves English clergymen, in copying these ceremonies, is one which the country thinks intolerable, and of which we ought to rid ourselves. The proposition before us is a moderate and temperate one. No one can deny it is but a measure of procedure, and I am prepared to look upon it as a Bill simple in its character, and professing nothing more than that which may be found in its clauses. In considering the course which we ought to take with respect to it, I have had to trouble the House very recently with the motives which induced the Government to afford facilities for the Second Reading. I believe the course which we have deemed it to be our duty to take with respect to it was one which it was impossible to avoid, and which was demanded of us by a sense of duty to the House and the country: and so far as my contract with the House is concerned, I have fulfilled it; nor is it needful for me to say more than I did on a previous occasion. If it had not been that the right hon. gentleman the Member for Greenwich had taken the step which he has taken, I should have

left it to the sense of the House to express itself as to the further progress of the measure. The right hon. gentleman adopted the course which he deemed right; but I do not wish to advert further to that point on the present occasion, because he cannot enter again into the debate, and I shrink from taking any advantage which that circumstance may afford. But the right hon. gentleman took another course—he has laid on the table six Propositions with respect to which I have no observation now to make, but that, if carried, it would be necessary that he should introduce a Bill into Parliament. Whether they will be carried or not, it is, perhaps, presumptuous to anticipate. On that point I may have my own opinion; but it would, I think, be impertinent on my part to conclude that Resolutions brought forward by the most eminent member of our body would not be successful. I could not, therefore, hesitate to afford the right hon. gentleman the opportunity which he desired. By fixing the Committee for Friday next, I give the House the means of deciding on these Resolutions, but it would be presumptuous on my part to contemplate what may be their fate. I must, however, say that I have given the subject my most anxious consideration—more anxious consideration, probably, than I have given to any question which has occupied my attention during the many long years of my political life—and that I have more and more, especially within the last few days, been of opinion that it would be highly desirable that this question should be settled during the present Session. I shrink, I must say, from the religious and ecclesiastical agitation which I see before me, and the consequences of our neglecting to fulfil what I think may be considered to be our duty in the present instance—to pass a measure temperate and moderate, I believe, in its scope, as I know it to be so in its conception. Further, if we refuse to pass this Bill, which is essentially conciliatory, we may find ourselves called upon to contend with far greater difficulties, and be obliged to apply as a remedy measures of a character far more stringent—measures of a character which one does not wish to associate with the feelings of religion, and with those sentiments which hon. Members on both sides of the House equally honour and appreciate—sentiments of goodwill towards our neighbours with regard to those religious opinions which they may respect and revere. I have announced that, so far as I am concerned—and I am speaking for myself only, but strongly for myself—the House will have on Friday the opportunity of deciding on the Resolutions and the possible Bill of the right hon. gentleman. My opinions on the Resolutions have been expressed already, and it is not necessary for me to repeat them; but to those Resolutions I repeat I shall give an uncompromising opposition. If they are unsuccessful, so far as I am concerned—believing that it is for the advantage of the Church, and certainly for the welfare of the country, that we should, if possible, apply a remedy without loss of time to an evil now universally acknowledged by all parties and all schools of re-

ligious thought in this House—I shall hope that, by the assistance of the House, the learned Recorder may have the opportunity of carrying the Bill he has introduced.”

This was a virtual announcement that Government had adopted the Bill, and meant to make its immediate settlement a vital question. The significance of the Prime Minister's speech was evident when on its conclusion Mr. Hussey Vivian, a faithful supporter of Mr. Gladstone, as he represented, for twenty-two years, rose and urged that gentleman not to press his “Resolutions,” which would assuredly not carry twenty Members of his own side into the lobby. A speech from Mr. Russell Gurney concluded the debate; and the Second Reading was proposed and carried, without a division. The unanimity of the House was a circumstance which took the world by surprise. That six hundred members—or nearly that number—should have agreed to pass such a Bill on such a subject—when Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Hardy had joined hands in opposition to it—when “all the ties of party association, the power of unrivalled eloquence, and an earnestness that was apparent in every word and gesture,” as a contemporary journalist says, had been brought to bear by the author of the “Six Resolutions”—was a fact only to be explained by the very deep and widespread repugnance of the English laity to the religious proclivities evinced by the Ritualistic party.

On the following day Mr. Gladstone made his surrender. “Since I gave notice,” he said, “of several Resolutions with regard to the Public Worship Regulation Bill, the House has passed the Second Reading of that measure. Various important notices of a hostile character had been given, but notwithstanding those notices, and, indeed, with the acquiescence and concurrence of the Members who had given them, the House had thought fit to read the Bill a second time without a division. I cannot in fairness do otherwise than accept that decision as an expression of the desire of the House that we should proceed to the consideration of the Bill in Committee without raising any of those broad questions relating to the grounds and proper limits of legislation on Ecclesiastical subjects which undoubtedly are raised in the Resolutions of which I have given notice. I have also to consider that notice has been given of important Amendments, which would, in my view, tend greatly to the improvement of this Bill, but which are of a character such as I think need not arouse any angry controversy. On the contrary, it is possible that they will meet with general favour from the House. I think that the discussion of those Amendments would be seriously prejudiced if we were to engage in a hostile controversy, before going into Committee, with reference to Resolutions which would be interpreted, and have already been interpreted, as opposed to legislation generally on the subject of the Bill. Under these circumstances, as my desire is that the provisions of the Bill should receive the very best form of which they are capable, I do not intend to move the Resolutions,

of which I have given notice." On the motion for going into Committee, Mr. Gurney responded to an appeal from Mr. Lowe by promising to introduce in the next Session a Bill for extending the jurisdiction of the Ecclesiastical Judge to all matters of discipline and doctrine. All difficulties from the main course of the measure were now smoothed away. Vast majorities confirmed the principal clauses in Committee. At the same time some important Amendments were inserted. The Bill was appointed to come into operation in July instead of January, 1875, so as to allow time for a thorough revisal of the Rubrics by Convocation and subsequent legislation thereupon by Parliament, in conformity with a measure proposed by the Bishop of London. The payment of the Judge was not to come out of the common fund of the Ecclesiastical Commission, as originally suggested; and Mr. Disraeli's proposal to substitute the Consolidated Fund passed as a preliminary Resolution. On one point only a battle remained; and that at the last hour seemed likely to imperil the issue. The Houses of Lords and Commons came in collision on an Amendment proposed by Mr. Holt, giving the persons making complaint against an officiating minister the right of appeal to the Archbishop in case the Bishop should refuse to institute proceedings. This motion being carried, by nearly three to one, Mr. Gladstone made a motion to rescind it, and quoted Canonists to prove that it would be an unprecedented interference with the relations between Suffragans and Metropolitans. Sir William Harcourt, who seemed to delight in confronting his former chief, declared that the notion of quoting Canonists was enough to make Lord Coke's bones turn in his grave; and protested, amid loud cheering, against the relations of Bishops and Archbishops being governed by the Canon Law, or by any other authority than that of the British Legislature. Mr. Gladstone's motion was negatived by 118 to 95.

The Lords, by a small majority, refused to accept the Amendment. The Archbishops were in favour of it, but nine Bishops voted against it. The Bishop of Winchester said he would trample his Episcopal robes under foot if he did not believe Episcopacy to be of Divine institution; and if it was of Divine institution, then each Bishop was ruler by Divine right in his own diocese. The Bishop of Lincoln objected to the clause as overriding Episcopal discretion, and tending to set up a Pope at Canterbury and an anti-Pope at York. The Lord Chancellor, dreading the threatened collision between the two branches of the Legislature, proposed a temporising Amendment. Lord Salisbury made an emphatic speech: "If the safeguard of the Bishop's veto were done away with, he feared that, even although there might be no resistance among the clergy, the lifeblood of the Church would be drained, because the candidates for orders would fall off, not only in numbers, but in the quality of the men, inasmuch as every man of independent mind would shrink from exposing himself to the dangers which the Bill, if properly

carried out, would involve. Much, he might add, had been said of the majority in another place, and of the peril in which the Bill would be if the clause under discussion were rejected. There was a great deal of that kind of bluster when any particular course had been taken by the other House of Parliament. It should be borne in mind, too, that the majority was only twenty-three, and that those who were most interested in supporting the Amendment were the very persons who above all things desired that the Bill should pass. It was absurd, then, to suppose that if the clause were rejected, there would not be found twelve men among them with sufficient common sense to accept the Bill without it rather than lose it altogether. He, for one, therefore, utterly repudiated the bugbear of a majority of the House of Commons. It was, he contended, their Lordships' duty to take the course which they deemed to be right. Upon them rested the responsibility of making a measure which could be worked with safety to the peace, prosperity, and order of the Church of England or one which would eventuate in endless calamities and disasters." There was no little anxiety to ascertain the course that would be adopted by the Commons when the refusal of their Amendment should be taken into consideration. Mr. Russell Gurney advised, though with pain and disappointment, that the rebuff should be submitted to, rather than that the whole Bill should be imperilled by a conflict which there was not time to fight out now that the Prorogation of Parliament was at hand. Sir William Harcourt, while accepting the Recorder's advice, spoke at great length and with great animation against the line taken by the Lords, and called on Mr. Disraeli, "a leader proud of the House of Commons, and of whom the House of Commons is proud," to vindicate the dignity of that House against the "rash and rancorous tongue" of Lord Salisbury, who, he said, had described the victorious Members on a late division as a "blustering majority." "The Lords," said Sir William, "have weakened the Bill by rejecting the Amendment, but the chief value of the Bill was an expression of public opinion which cannot be defeated by a majority of twelve in the House of Lords. It is not to be reversed by half a dozen High Church Bishops, or a dozen Ritualistic Lords in Waiting. The right hon. gentleman the Prime Minister has proclaimed his intention to vindicate in the Church of England the broad platform of the Reformation. Depend upon it, as long as he pursues that policy without flinching, he will find support in quarters where he least expects it. He will find he has with him the great majority of the House of Commons, without distinction of party, for I hope the House of Commons will always represent the overwhelming sense of the English nation. But let not the right hon. gentleman deceive himself. This Bill will not restore the principles of the Reformation in the English Church. This Bill will not 'put down Ritualism;' it is only the beginning of the work. The right hon. gentleman has put his hand to the plough-

and he cannot turn back. In my opinion this is one of those occasions which determine the fate of Ministries and the reputation of Statesmen. There are many occasions which test the sagacity, the firmness, and the foresight of those whose high dignity and whose deep responsibility it is to conduct the destinies of an Imperial State. I believe it is upon the decision which we take on this matter in the present year, and in those which are to come, that the fate of the Church and to a great degree the fate of the Constitution of this country depend. I know that this Amendment has been rejected by a combination of those who do not desire and do not intend that this Bill shall work. I am firmly convinced that upon the working of this Bill or upon those measures which must inevitably succeed it, will depend the future fate of the Church. I believe that the Minister may if he likes yet save the Church; I believe it is not too late, but I also am firmly convinced that if the Church of England is to be saved it will only be by satisfying the nation."

Mr. Disraeli then rose. He repeated his description of the Bill that it was intended to put down Ritualism, and by Ritualism he meant the practices of a certain portion of the clergy, symbolical, according to their own admission, of doctrines which they were solemnly bound to renounce. Of all the false pretences put forward there was none, Mr. Disraeli declared, more glaring than the pretence that "this small, pernicious sect" was a part of the High Church party, among which had been found some of the most strenuous enemies of Rome. The Bill, he believed, would be found efficacious for its purpose, and it would be with the utmost hesitation that he would take any step to put it in peril. He had supported Mr. Holt's Amendment as a wise and salutary provision, and he regretted its defeat; but for the sake of it he was not prepared to forfeit the Bill. Deprecating the practice of analysing division lists as calculated in the long run to injure the salutary authority of majorities, he maintained that the Lords in rejecting the Amendment had exercised their privilege in a Constitutional manner, more especially as the appeal was not in the Bill as they sent it down, and there was nothing in the debate or division to prevent the Commons treating the matter in a judicial spirit. "As to Lord Salisbury's language, let us not for a moment (said Mr. Disraeli) be diverted from the course which we think, as wise and grave men, we ought to follow, by any allusions to the spirit of any speech which may have been made in the course of the debates in the other House of Parliament. My noble friend who has been referred to by the right hon. gentleman who has just addressed us with so much ability, was long a member of this House, and is well known to many of the Members even of this Parliament. He is not a man who measures his phrases. He is one who is a great master of gibes and flouts and jeers—but I don't suppose there is anyone who is prejudiced against a member of Parliament on account of such qualifications. My

noble friend knows the House of Commons well, and he is not perhaps superior to the consideration that by making a speech of that kind, and taunting respectable men like ourselves as being a 'blustering majority,' he probably might stimulate the *amour propre* of some individuals to take the course which he wants, and to defeat the Bill. Now I hope we shall not fall into that trap. I hope we shall show my noble friend that we remember some of his manœuvres when he was a simple Member of this House, and that we are not to be taunted into taking a very indiscreet step, a step ruinous to all our own wishes and expectations, merely to show that we resent the contemptuous phrases of one of my colleagues. I trust, therefore, that the House will consider this question, not with reference to the elements of the majority of the House of Lords, nor with reference to some expressions in a speech which may have had the calculated intention of inducing Members of this House to give a rash vote—a vote fatal to their own wishes—but, on the contrary, that they will keep before them completely the point at issue. The House of Lords has negatived a proviso of ours which was not in the original Bill which they sent down. This, therefore, on the part of the Lords, is a most legitimate exercise of their rights. We have certainly an opportunity of rejecting the Amendment of the Lords; but in taking that course we shall in all probability lose the result of all the labours of the last few months in which we are so much interested. I cannot bring myself to believe the House of Commons will take a course so pernicious to the public interest, so disappointing to the people of this country, and so little conducive, in my opinion, to the reputation of this House, and the credit which it has always possessed in this country as consisting generally of sensible men. Sympathising as I do with the majority on this subject, having myself supported the Member for North Lancashire from the beginning, entirely approving the proviso which he brought forward, believing that the Bill would be much improved by its insertion, still, recollecting what has occurred, and acting under the conviction that if we do not accept this Amendment of the House of Lords, which has been arrived at most constitutionally, we shall lose this Bill—upon which, whatever may be the estimate of it of the right hon. gentleman who has last spoken, I believe the heart of the English people is now set—I do most earnestly recommend my hon. friends, as far as my voice can guide them, not to hesitate in the course which they will pursue; to take a plain, straightforward, and determined course, and to act in a way which will satisfy the country and their own consciences by accepting the Amendment of the House of Lords."

Mr. Gladstone admitted that Mr. Disraeli's appeal was unanswerable, but regretted that he had indulged in the language of strong denunciation so common in these Ecclesiastical controversies. Turning to Sir W. Harcourt, he complimented him ironically on the profitable use he had made of his time since Friday night,

when not only the "lawyer," but the "Cambridge Professor of Law," seemed taken by surprise. But to renew the controversy in which this "rapidly-acquired erudition" had been displayed would be wasting the time of the House, and not very profitable to the party to which, Mr. Gladstone said—provoking a general laugh—"I believe we both belong." He declined, therefore, to follow the "late Solicitor-General," except to remark that most of his arguments did not touch the question which he had himself raised. But if the House really desired the maintenance of a National Establishment in this country, he could not impress upon it too strongly the necessity for temper and moderation in these Ecclesiastical discussions. If the tone taken by Sir W. Harcourt were to be the standard, then the National Establishment of religion must soon fall under the strokes of its ill-advised defenders.

In conclusion the motion that the Commons do not insist on their Amendment was carried without a Division.

The encomiums lavished by Sir William Harcourt on Mr. Disraeli were much remarked upon; so were the strongly sarcastic expressions of the Prime Minister with reference to his noble colleague in the Cabinet. Lord Salisbury tendered his "explanation" in the House of Lords a day or two afterwards, utterly denying that he had used the words "blustering majority" in the sense asserted. He had used the word "bluster," he said, but only with reference to the sort of argument used by many people to induce the Lords to give way when a difference occurred between the two Houses; he had not used any expression disrespectful to the Lower House. "There has been," he added, with reference to Mr. Disraeli's animadversion, "a good deal of excited language used, but I do not think it my duty to refer to that. It is very natural that those whose opinions are overruled should feel irritation. My only object is to clear myself of this imputation, and to express my hope that we may never again see the renewal of so great an irregularity as the discussion in one House of Parliament of the debates in the other."

The Bill was read a Third Time in the House of Commons on August 3, amidst much cheering. Mr. Disraeli announced that Lord Penzance had undertaken the office of the new Ecclesiastical Judgeship, his salary being fixed in Committee at 3,000*l.*, not 4,000*l.* as at first proposed.

CHAPTER IV.

Mr. Gladstone's Essay on Ritualism—His Pamphlet on the Vatican Decrees—Controversies among Roman Catholics in consequence—*Voce della Verità*, &c.—Lord Ripon—Pilgrimage to Pontigny—Trade Disputes—Strikes in Coal and Iron Trades—Agricultural Strike in the Eastern Counties.

THE echoes of ecclesiastical controversy did not die away with the prorogation of Parliament. The ex-Premier, returning to his retreat in Flintshire, gave himself to the elucidation of the party-term which Mr. Disraeli's declamation had emphasised. The Public Worship Bill, said Mr. Disraeli, was a Bill to "put down Ritualism." "What is Ritualism?" asked Mr. Gladstone, as the text of an essay which in the beginning of October startled the world in the pages of the *Contemporary Review*. This is not the place to enter into a critical examination of the essay itself, which every one read with avidity, and which numbered several thousands of reprints before many weeks were over. It was considered, that with all his copiousness of language and fertility of idea, the writer totally failed to hit the true point at issue. While marking off his own sympathies from any devotion to excessive ornamentation in Divine service as a religious principle, he seemed to treat high ritual as a matter of æsthetic religion only, and to miss altogether the sacerdotal and sacramental symbolisms which really made it offensive to the feeling of Protestant England. One passage of his Essay must be extracted, because it gave rise to an ebullition of feeling against him on the part of the Roman Catholics, and led to subsequent important results in religious and political controversy. Touching upon the Romanising tendencies of Ritualism, he said:—

"As to the question whether a handful of the clergy are or are not engaged in an utterly hopeless and visionary effort to Romanise the Church and people of England,—

"At no time since the bloody reign of Mary has such a scheme been possible. But if it had been possible in the seventeenth or eighteenth centuries, it would still have become impossible in the nineteenth; when Rome has substituted for the proud boast of *semper eadem* a policy of violence and change in faith; when she has refurbished and paraded anew every rusty tool she was fondly thought to have disused; when no one can become her convert without renouncing his moral and mental freedom, and placing his civil loyalty and duty at the mercy of another; and when she has equally repudiated modern thought and ancient history. I cannot persuade myself to feel alarm as to the final issue of her crusades

in England, and this although I do not undervalue her power of mischief."

Now this passage excited at once the utmost indignation in quarters where Mr. Gladstone's political actions, as regarded Roman Catholic subjects of the Empire, had hitherto formed great stronghold of his popularity. It surprised not a little who, whether with approval or disapproval, had looked on his part with regard to the disestablishment of the Irish Church and abortive Irish University schemes, as well as his opposition to late measure of the Archbishops, as indicative of at least an indulgent sympathy with Romish tendencies, if not a lenient personal opinion towards that type of Anglicanism which bore close on Romish territory. And the Irish Romanist journals, which had been accustomed to laud him as a hero and a champion, burst forth into a frenzy of unmeasured abuse. The *Dublin Freeman* declared that the passage in question would be read throughout Ireland with astonishment and regret. Such words were arguments but insults—"worn-out commonplaces of No. 10. zealots recast by a master of phraseology." Taking the whole as the deliberate utterance of a great statesman, it asked, "What spectacle can be more disgusting than that of an intellectual man willingly bending the knee to Baal, and putting round his neck the iron collar of fanaticism?" And after declaring the Premier to have for ever forfeited the regard of the people of Ireland, it concluded: "With his eyes open Mr. Gladstone made his choice. Let him look for the future to Exeter Hall support and applause. Let him not look to Ireland. To its Catholic people he has offered a public insult—an irreparable and most uncalled-for insult. Ireland would bear much from him for the sake of the past, but these are insults which fan the blood to flame and the heart to fire."

Mr. Gladstone was not slack in prosecuting the war he provoked. If the world was startled by his *Essay on Ritualism*, it was startled still more by a pamphlet which he put forth early in the month of November, bearing the title of "The Vatican Creeds in their Bearing on Civil Allegiance: A Political Exposition." The "Expostulation" professed to be addressed to English Roman Catholics, and it formally challenged them, in justice to themselves and their country, to demonstrate, if they could, that the obedience now required of them by the Pope could be reconciled with the integrity of their civil allegiance. The writer stated that his present pamphlet had been occasioned by the monstrous address addressed to him by Roman Catholics in respect of the passage already quoted from his *Essay on Ritualism*; and, taking that passage as his text, he divided it into five propositions. The first and fourth of these were that "Rome has substituted for the old boast of *semper eadem*, a policy of violence and change in faith, and that she has equally repudiated modern thought and ancient history." Passing quickly over these points as belonging to

theological domain, he merely sought to prove the fact they stated, and justify the opinion they expressed. The second proposition,—that “Rome has refurbished and paraded anew every rusty tool she was fondly thought to have disused”—he also discussed in half a dozen pages, passing on then to the third proposition, which was the main object of the pamphlet, and which was stated thus:—“That no one can now become her (Rome’s) convert without renouncing his moral and mental freedom, and placing his civil loyalty and duty at the mercy of another”—that other being the Pope. He discussed this proposition at great length, contrasting the declarations made by Irish bishops before Committees of the Houses of Lords and Commons, previous to the passing of the Catholic Emancipation Act, as well as decrees of Councils and declarations of great ecclesiastical authorities in earlier and later times, with the new claims set up in 1870, and clearly showing how the Roman Catholic authorities deprecated fifty years ago the very doctrines of allegiance which were strongly asserted now. The Vicar Apostolic had then declared—

“That neither the Pope nor any other prelate or ecclesiastical person of the Roman Catholic Church . . . has any right to interfere directly or indirectly in the Civil Government . . . nor to oppose in any manner the performance of the civil duties which are due to the King;”

while the Irish Roman Catholic hierarchy had published an address containing the following article, which stands in strange contrast with the creed of their successors:—

“They declare on oath their belief that it is not an article of the Catholic faith, neither are they thereby required to believe, that the Pope is infallible.”

“Since that time,” said Mr. Gladstone, “all these propositions have been reversed. The Pope’s infallibility when he speaks *ex cathedrâ* on faith and morals, has been declared, with the assent of the Bishops of the Roman Church, to be an article of faith, binding on the conscience of every Christian: his claim to the obedience of his spiritual subjects has been declared in like manner without any practical limit or reserve; and his supremacy, without any reserve of civil rights, has been similarly affirmed to include everything which relates to the discipline and government of the Church throughout the world. And these doctrines, we now know on the highest authority, it is of necessity for salvation to believe.”

He proceeded to expose, one by one, the subterfuges by which Roman Catholic expositors endeavour to attenuate the stringency of this claim—such, for instance, as that the Pope is only infallible when speaking *ex cathedrâ*; and in the following passage he exploded the most frequent of these evasions:—

“Will it be said, finally, that the Infallibility touches only matter of faith and morals? Only matter of morals! Will any of the Roman casuists kindly acquaint us what are the departments and.

functions of human life which do not and cannot fall within the domain of morals? . . . No! Such a distinction would be the unworthy device of a shallow policy, vainly used to hide the daring of that wild ambition which at Rome, not from the throne, but from behind the throne, prompts the movements of the Vatican. I care not to ask if there be dregs or tatters of human life, such as can escape from the description and boundary of morals. I submit that duty is a power which rises with us in the morning, and goes to rest with us at night. It is co-extensive with the action of our intelligence. It is the shadow which cleaves to us go where we will, and which only leaves us when we leave the light of life. So then it is the supreme direction of us in respect to all duty, which the Pontiff declares to belong to him *sacro approbante concilio*; and this declaration he makes, not as an otiose opinion of the schools, but *cunctis fidelibus credendam et tenendam*."

But he further insisted that the Council has established something even wider in its reach than the claim to Infallibility, and that is "the claim to an absolute and entire obedience." This part of the decrees of the Council had not, Mr. Gladstone thought, received due attention, and he thus expounded it:—

"Even, therefore, when the judgments of the Pope do not present the credentials of infallibility, they are unappealable and irreversible, no person may pass judgment upon them, and all men, clerical and lay, dispersedly or in the aggregate, are bound truly to obey them; and from this rule of Catholic truth no man can depart, save at the peril of his salvation. Surely, it is allowable to say that this Third Chapter on Universal Obedience is a formidable rival to the Fourth Chapter on Infallibility. Indeed, to an observer from without, it seems to leave the dignity to the other, but to reserve the stringency and efficiency to itself. The Third Chapter is the Merovingian Monarch; the fourth is the Carolingian Mayor of the Palace. The third has an overawing splendour; the fourth, an iron gripe. Little does it matter to me whether my superior claims infallibility, so long as he is entitled to demand and exact conformity. This, it will be observed, he demands even in cases not covered by his infallibility; cases, therefore, in which he admits it to be possible that he may be wrong, but finds it intolerable to be told so. As he must be obeyed in all his judgments though not *ex cathedrâ*, it seems a pity he could not likewise give the comforting assurance that they are all certain to be right."

Lest this "ostensible reduplication, this apparent surplusage," should be undervalued, the writer observed that though the contrivers of the scheme must have known perfectly well that "faith and morals" carried everything, or everything worth having, in the purely individual sphere, "they also knew just as well that, even where the individual was subjugated, they might and still would have to deal with the State." He considered this the very kernel of the matter. "Individual servitude, however abject, will not satisfy

the party now dominant in the Latin Church : the State must also be a slave." This Third Chapter, he reiterated, boldly declares that—

"Absolute obedience is due to the Pope, at the peril of salvation, not alone in faith, in morals, but in all things which concern the discipline and government of the Church."

And he summed up his indictment on this head in the following words :—

"Thus are swept into the Papal net whole multitudes of facts, whole systems of government, prevailing, though in different degrees, in every country of the world. Even in the United States, where the severance between Church and State is supposed to be complete, a long catalogue might be drawn of subjects belonging to the domain and competency of the State, but also undeniably affecting the government of the Church ; such as, by way of example, marriage, burial, education, prison discipline, blasphemy, poor relief, incorporation, mortmain, religious endowments, vows of celibacy and obedience. In Europe the circle is far wider, the points of contact and of interlacing almost innumerable. But on all matters, respecting which any Pope may think proper to declare that they concern either faith, or morals, or the government or discipline of the Church, he claims, with the approval of a Council undoubtedly Ecumenical in the Roman sense, the absolute obedience, at the peril of salvation, of every member of his Communion. It seems not as yet to have been thought wise to pledge the Council in terms to the Syllabus and the Encyclical. That achievement is probably reserved for some one of its sittings yet to come. In the meantime it is well to remember that this claim in respect of all things affecting the discipline and government of the Church, as well as faith and conduct, is lodged in open day by and in the reign of a Pontiff who has condemned free speech, free writing, a free press, toleration of nonconformity, liberty of conscience, the study of civil and philosophical matters in independence of the ecclesiastical authority, marriage unless sacramentally contracted, and the definition by the State of the civil rights (*jura*) of the Church ; who has demanded for the Church, therefore, the title to define its own civil rights, together with a Divine right to civil immunities, and a right to use physical force ; and who has also proudly asserted that the Popes of the Middle Ages with their Councils did not invade the rights of Princes : as, for example, Gregory VII., of the Emperor Henry IV. ; Innocent III., of Raymond of Toulouse ; Paul III., in deposing Henry VIII. ; or Pius V., in performing the like paternal office for Elizabeth."

Under these circumstances, Mr. Gladstone submitted that England was entitled to ask and know in what way the obedience required by the Pope and the Council of the Vatican was to be reconciled with the liberty of civil allegiance ? And to satisfy this demand, one of two things he pronounced to be requisite, either—

"1. A demonstration that neither in the name of faith, nor

in the name of morals, nor in the name of the government or discipline of the Church, is the Pope of Rome able, by virtue of the powers asserted for him by the Vatican decree, to make any claim upon those who adhere to his Communion of such a nature as can impair the integrity of their civil allegiance; or else

“2. That if when such claim is made, it will, even although resting on the definitions of the Vatican, be repelled and rejected; just as Bishop Doyle, when he was asked what the Roman Catholic clergy would do if the Pope intermeddled with their religion, replied frankly, ‘The consequence would be, that we should oppose him by every means in our power, even by the exercise of our spiritual authority.’”

The pamphlet then offered a brief reply to the question whether the propositions Mr. Gladstone had thus been defending were proper to be put forth by him? In answer to this he observed, that in association with the Liberal party he had for thirty years laboured to maintain and extend the civil rights of Roman Catholics, and that he himself and that party had sometimes suffered heavily in public opinion, “from a belief that it was too ardent in the pursuit of that policy.” He thought, therefore, that not merely general justice to society, but special justice to his party, which he “may have had a share in thus placing at a disadvantage before our countrymen,” rendered it becoming that he should make the present declaration. Up to 1870, however, opinion in the Roman Church on all matters affecting civil liberty was “free wherever it was resolute,” although an evil tendency was discernible. Mr. Gladstone at that time felt it to be the first and paramount duty of the British Legislature, whatever Rome might say or do, to give to Ireland all that justice could demand, and while this debt remained unpaid he did not think it his province to open a line of argument on a matter of prospective rather than immediate interest, which might have prejudiced the matter of duty lying nearest our hand. But the last debt of this kind was, he considered, paid by the Irish University Bill of February, 1873:—

“Some indeed think that it was overpaid, a question into which this is manifestly not the place to enter. But the Roman Catholic Prelacy of Ireland thought fit to procure the rejection of that measure, by the direct influence which they exercised over a certain number of Irish members of Parliament, and by the temptation which they thus offered—the bid, in effect, which (to use a homely phrase) they made to attract the support of the Tory Opposition.”

From that moment Mr. Gladstone felt that the situation was changed, and that “important matters would have to be cleared by suitable explanations,” and he now takes advantage of his emancipation from the restraints of an official position.

Before dismissing the subject Mr. Gladstone anticipated the inquiry whether these observations are meant as a recantation and a regret, and what they indicate as the policy of the future? His

answer was succinct and plain :—"Of what the Liberal party has accomplished by word or deed in establishing the full civil equality of Roman Catholics, I regret nothing, and I recant nothing." It was, he said, a political misfortune that during the last thirty years the Roman Catholic Church should have acquired such an extension of its hold upon the highest classes of this country. The conquests had been chiefly among women, "but the number of male converts, or captives (as I might prefer to call them), has not been inconsiderable." He observed, however, that such a movement in the higher class does not, as usual in this country, indicate any similar movement in the mass.

"There is something at least abnormal in such a partial growth, taking effect as it does among the wealthy and noble, while the people cannot be charmed, by any incantation, into the Roman camp. The original Gospel was supposed to be meant especially for the poor, but the gospel of the nineteenth century from Rome courts another and less modest destination. If the Pope does not control more souls among us, he certainly controls more acres."

The severance of a certain number of lords of the soil from those who till it can be borne, said Mr. Gladstone. "My own views and intentions in the future," he added, characteristically, "are of the smallest significance." But "in the little that depends" on him he would still be guided by the rule of maintaining equal civil rights, irrespective of religious differences. He concluded with the following words :—

"Strong the State of the United Kingdom has always been in material strength; and its moral panoply is now, we may hope, pretty complete. It is not then for the dignity of the Crown and people of the United Kingdom to be diverted from a path which they have deliberately chosen, and which it does not rest with all the myrmidons of the Apostolic Chamber either openly to obstruct or secretly to undermine. It is rightfully to be expected, it is greatly to be desired, that the Roman Catholics of this country should do in the nineteenth century what their forefathers of England, except a handful of emissaries, did in the sixteenth, when they were marshalled in resistance to the Armada; and in the seventeenth when, in despite of the Papal Chair, they sat in the House of Lords under the Oath of Allegiance. That which we are entitled to desire, we are entitled also to expect; indeed, to say we did not expect it, would, in my judgment, be the true way of conveying an 'insult' to those concerned. In this expectation we may be partially disappointed. Should those to whom I appeal thus unhappily come to bear witness in their own persons of the decay of sound, manly, true life in their Church, it will be their loss more than ours. The inhabitants of these islands, as a whole, are stable, though sometimes credulous and excitable; resolute, though sometimes boastful; and a strong-headed and sound-hearted race will not be hindered, either by latent or avowed dissents, due to

the foreign influence of a caste, from the accomplishment of its mission in the world."

The confusion caused by the bursting of a shell in the midst of a populous town, would be no unapt illustration of the effect produced in the Roman Catholic ranks by the publication of Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet. What was popularly supposed to be a compact and homogeneous body—a Church united in itself—now showed itself to have no more real unity than distracted Protestantism could boast of. True, this had long been known on the Continent, where Ultramontanes and "Old Catholics" had been at open issue for four years or more; but in England a politic silence had, for the most part, concealed the fundamental differences of opinion as to the dividing question of the Pope's Infallibility. These differences were now dragged to light; and an instructive episode in ecclesiastical history was the consequence.

Archbishop Manning and Lord Acton were the first pair who stepped forth to greet the ex-Premier's challenge. They represented respectively the Ultramontane and the Liberal Catholic phases of opinion.

The Archbishop, upholding the Vatican decrees, declared "that these oracles had, in no jot or tittle, changed either the obligations or the conditions of civil allegiance; that the civil allegiance of Catholics is as undivided as that of all Christians, and of all men who recognise a Divine or natural moral law; that the civil allegiance of no man is unlimited, and therefore the civil allegiance of all men who believe in God, or are governed by conscience, is in that sense divided."

Lord Acton, in what he called a "preliminary" answer to Mr. Gladstone's challenge, virtually threw over the Vatican decrees, which he said did not affect practically the civil allegiance of Catholics now, any more than the exaggerated claims of pontiffs in times past had practically made well-disposed subjects rebels. The Vatican decrees might be things of yesterday, but they were not on that account more binding than the Lateran decrees; and if the latter were disregarded, why could not the former be shifted aside? The authority of Pius IX., however highly placed, could not be esteemed greater than that of Pius V., the last canonised occupant of the Papal chair; and Pius V. affected to depose Queen Elizabeth, and, not content with pronouncing beforehand her assassination a pious deed, employed an agent to assassinate her; and why are Roman Catholics to be denied the liberty of differing from Pius IX. when they can condemn without reserve Pius V.? In short, Lord Acton maintained that all Catholics are not the same; that they differ widely among themselves; and just as there have been Catholics, and Catholics of as unimpeachable orthodoxy as Philip II., who have resisted Popes even in arms, so might a member of the Church of Rome now be unimpeachably orthodox, and yet resist the Vatican Decrees.

The real gist of his reply seemed to be that it was of no prac-

tical importance what portentous dogma or immoral principle a modern Pope might proclaim; for dogmas quite as portentous, and much more immoral, had been proclaimed by Popes from time immemorial, and English Roman Catholics had been too sound at heart to be corrupted by them.

More respondents soon appeared. Sir George Bowyer echoed the sentiments of Archbishop Manning. Lord Camoys declared, like Lord Acton, though with more directness, that, although a Roman Catholic, he concurred with the views Mr. Gladstone had expressed respecting the new dogmas of his Church. "For myself," he averred, "I will say that history, common sense, and my early instruction forbid me to accept the astounding and novel doctrine of the personal infallibility of the Pope, though limited, as asserted, to the large domain of faith and morals." In the whole of Mr. Gladstone's vehement attack upon the Ultramontane decrees and policy, he took exception to nothing but the single epithet "bloody" as applied to Queen Mary. In all other respects he admitted its truth, and he owned that, if the Vatican Decrees were enforced, he himself and many members of the Roman Catholic Church throughout the world would be placed in "serious difficulties."

Speaking of the language held previous to the Emancipation Act, he remarked: "Had any Catholic of importance then said, 'I am a Catholic first and an Englishman after,' and that without the slightest reservation, and had that expression been defended by a Catholic archbishop of that day as it has been defended by the Archbishop of Westminster, I very much doubt if Catholic emancipation would have been granted."

Mr. Henry Petre wrote: "The plain and straightforward statement contained in Lord Camoys' letter speaks for itself, and its sound common sense needs neither support nor confirmation from any quarter. It will be no exaggeration to affirm that among the Old Catholics of England, however loth they may be to appear in open opposition to the authority of their Church, there are many who watch with anxiety, not unmingled with regret, the reckless and irrational proceedings of the Ultramontane party—a party seeking to impose upon the world, with all the means of powerful combination at its command, the astounding claims issuing from the Vatican—claims and pretensions long since supposed to have been extinct, which now in their resuscitation are tending to open hostility with modern progress, and to collision with every civil authority in Europe." "The claims of the Vatican to supreme and infallible authority over all things pertaining to faith and morals, the limits of which the Vatican is alone to decide, embrace so vast and immense a range, entering into every relation and branch of human life, that we may easily contemplate the power of the Church clashing with the civil authority. Under such circumstances, the only reply a loyal subject could possibly make to Mr. Gladstone's appeal would be 'An Englishman first, a Catholic after.'"

Presently afterwards, Lord Petre, in the name of the Catholic Union, formally disowned the opinions of this last-named scion of his house, together with those of Lords Acton and Camoys. And the same line was taken by a member of another ancient Roman Catholic family, Mr. Stourton.

"Every Catholic," said Mr. Stourton, "including, I may venture to say, Lords Camoys and Acton, was educated in the belief that the infallible authority of the Church resides in the Bishops and Prelates of the Church assembled in Council, summoned by the Pope, and presided over by him or his Legate, and that all decrees passed by them, and sanctioned by Papal authority, are infallible. Such was the Vatican Council, fulfilling every condition requisite that it should be a General Council of the Church. In the furthest corners of the globe the voice of Pius IX. was heard summoning that Council to assemble, and neither distance nor hardship prevented that call from being obeyed. One venerable Bishop had six months of weary travel before him to reach Rome from his remote diocese. Never has the slightest suspicion of informality or absence of freedom in debate been raised against the Council of the Vatican. Why not, therefore, accept its decrees as we have accepted those of Nice, Constantinople, and Ephesus? Who are Lord Camoys and Lord Acton that they should say, 'Thus far and no farther;' that in 1870 the authority of the Church no longer resided in a General Council?"

A more important criticism on the letters of the two noblemen was delivered by Monsignor Capel. He asserted that neither Lord Acton nor Lord Camoys could be taken as a representative of Catholic thought or of the Catholic laity, and that if their letters were to go unchallenged much misapprehension would ensue. He said:—

"Excellent as are these noble peers, they are in no way representatives either of Catholic thought or of the Catholic laity. They take little or no part in the life of the Catholic body in this country, and would not have the shadow of a chance to be chosen as spokesmen of our laity. Lord Acton having made statements imputing atrocious charges to the Holy See, is bound, in common justice, to give equally publicly the authorities on which these rest. If Lord Camoys seriously and obstinately refuses to accept the doctrine of the 'personal infallibility of the Pope,' then does he make shipwreck of the Faith, and *ipso facto* separate himself from communion with the Church and the See of St. Peter.

"Before the Vatican decree all Catholics were bound to hold that the gift of Infallibility belonged to the Church; that it was exercised by the teaching body of the Church united to the Pope, either dispersed in daily teaching or assembled in General Council; and that this Infallibility was exercised over the whole field of 'faith and morals.' After the Vatican decree, Infallibility, neither in its nature, nor in its scope, was added to; it was only decided that the *ex cathedra*, or official, utterances of the Head of the

Church were so directed by the Holy Ghost that they could not be at variance with the truth. This did but assert the unerring exercise of the Infallibility of the Church through its head. It is, therefore, a misunderstanding on the part of Lord Camoys and Mr. Gladstone to imagine that the Vatican decrees in any way touched the former domain of Infallibility. If it were justifiable to emancipate Catholics, and to extend to them the political privileges of other of Her Majesty's subjects previous to 1870, there is not the least reason for raising a new cry against them.

"The Church has always held (a) that all power, civil or ecclesiastical, emanates from God. (b) That both, therefore, are to be honoured and obeyed. (c) That the ecclesiastical power is superior to the civil, and defines the limit of one and the other. (d) That where the civil power passes its proper province, then has the Church the right to raise her voice and condemn it. As in fulfilling the precept 'Honour thy father and thy mother,' cases may arise wherein the child must obey God rather than its parent, so likewise it may unfortunately happen that the State may abuse its power, and conscience, clearly perceiving this, legitimately refuse obedience. But as the exception, in the first instance, does not justify us in speaking of a divided allegiance, neither does it in the second."

Another Romanist prelate, Bishop Ullathorne, inveighed against the new sect of the "Dollingerites," and declared formally that any person who, like Lord Acton, "adheres not with steadfastness to the dogmatic decisions of the Popes and Councils" "is no longer a child of the Church, and has no right to her sacraments or communion." Lord Arundell of Wardour took a middle course, and explained that, like Sir George Bowyer, he accepted the decrees of the Vatican, but repudiated the unqualified interpretation of them in an Ultramontane sense which Monsignor Capel had dogmatically enunciated. Mr. Shee put forth a legal view of the question, and declared he had no evidence to convince him, "as a Catholic, that the Vatican Council had, in fact, pronounced any decree whatever on the question of Papal Infallibility." "The Pope," he said, "had expressed an opinion, 'with the approbation of the Council;' but the Council had asserted nothing on the subject, nor clenched it 'by its own anathema.'"

Lord Herries and Mr. Langdale declared their entire acquiescence in the Vatican decrees, expressing at the same time their conviction that their loyalty was no wise impaired thereby. An old friend of Mr. Gladstone's, Canon Oakeley, one of the Oxford "perverts" of former days, wrote to him: "As to the propositions of the Syllabus, they seem to me to embody in a dogmatic shape the principles which I was taught forty years ago by the great Tractarian leaders. The Tractarian movement itself, as you will remember, originated in a protest against the encroachments of the Civil Power on what were believed to be the rights of the Church. There is not one of the popular maxims con-

demned in the Syllabus which such men as Mr. Keble and Mr. Hurrell Froude would not have held in utter detestation. I not only receive the Vatican decree with dutiful submission, but recognise the truth of every proposition in the Syllabus. Yet, on the other hand, I am able to pursue my ministrations as a priest in this country, where the political maxims of the time are in direct opposition both to the letter and spirit of those propositions, without either compunction of conscience or a hint of displeasure, whether from the central or local ecclesiastical authorities. Do not say, as perhaps in your kindness you will be inclined to say, that my own case is, for personal reasons, exceptional. It is the case of the Catholic clergy throughout England. If you ask me how these things can be, I really cannot answer otherwise than by saying that so they are, and that the fact, not the explanation, is all that is required for my present argument. On the whole, therefore, I cannot see that there is any call for voluntary declarations of loyalty on the part of Catholics, whether lay or clerical. But the condemnation of those propositions in the abstract is a very different thing from saying that in a Protestant country like our own, where they are received as axioms and habitually carried out in practice, it becomes the part of Catholics to resist them at the expense of their duty to their Queen and country, or not rather to fall in with them, except where they directly conflict with any obligation of indispensable necessity. This is actually what we do, and what we do with quiet consciences and without protest from our ecclesiastical authorities."

These were some only of the conflicting answers which Mr. Gladstone's momentous "Expostulation" had produced within a few days of its appearance. We must add the elaborate expansion with which Lord Acton supplemented his "preliminary" argument, and which was printed in the columns of the *Times*, on November 24. He had been called upon, he said, by many persons to verify the statements then made; and complied with the appeal in order to repel the charge that the facts were invented for a theory, or that a faithful narrative of undogmatic history could involve contradiction with the teaching or authority of the Church whose communion was dearer to him than life. Into his long historical retrospect, with its damaging charges against the acts and pretensions of the representatives of the Papacy in times past, we need not here enter, but the close of his letter was as follows:—"I know that there are some whose feelings of reverence and love are, unhappily, wounded by what I have said. I entreat them to remember how little would be gained if all that came within the scope of my argument could be swept out of existence—to ask themselves seriously the question whether the laws of the Inquisition are or are not a scandal and a sorrow to their souls. It would be well if men had never fallen into the temptation of suppressing truth and encouraging error for the better security of religion. Our Church stands, and our faith should stand, not on

the virtues of men, but on the surer ground of an institution and a guidance that are Divine. Therefore I rest unshaken in the belief that nothing which the inmost depths of history shall disclose in time to come can ever bring to Catholics just cause of shame or fear. I should dishonour and betray the Church if I entertained a suspicion that the evidences of religion could be weakened or the authority of Councils sapped by a knowledge of the facts with which I have been dealing, or of others which are not less grievous or less certain because they remain untold."

Meanwhile a second letter by Archbishop Manning, reprinted from the *New York Herald*, was more defiantly outspoken than the first; for in it he declared the doctrine of Papal Infallibility to have been "a doctrine of Divine Faith *before* the Vatican Council;" that "therefore the position of Catholics, in respect to civil allegiance, is precisely what it was before it." This was not only contrary to the view taken by Lord Acton and the Liberal Catholics who mainly agreed with him, but was inconsistent with the position occupied by Monsignor Capel.

In short, the variety of opinion within the Romish Camp which Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet had elicited, was not ill described by a Protestant critic in these words:—"The controversy now going on about the Vatican decrees and the position of Roman Catholics as regards their civil and ecclesiastical allegiance seems to show pretty clearly that there are no fewer than four distinct and conflicting views held on this subject by persons of more or less consideration within the Roman Catholic Church. First, Lord Acton says in effect that the claims of the Papacy are to the full as exorbitant and would, if they were conceded in practice, be as destructive to the civil allegiance of those who admit them as their strongest opponents have ever represented them to be. But, he argues, they are not, and never have been or will be, conceded in practice. Secondly, Monsignor Capel declares that, interpreted as he interprets them, the claims of the Papacy are not destructive of civil allegiance. Thirdly, Sir George Bowyer and Lord Arundell of Wardour, while also declaring that these claims do not affect civil allegiance, repudiate Monsignor Capel's interpretation of them, implying thereby that, if that interpretation were correct, they would interfere with civil allegiance. And, lastly, Mr. Martin Archer Shee alleges in effect that the most exorbitant and dangerous of these claims has never been advanced at all with the requisite and binding formalities, and that Papal infallibility has been only promulgated by the Pope, *sacro approbante concilio*, and not, as it should have been, in the form of a declaration by a General Council, 'clenched by its own anathema.'"

And if anything could have helped to show the non-Catholic world how deep the schism between the professing members of the Church Universal reached, it would have been a circular which Archbishop Manning issued towards the end of November, just

before his departure for Rome. He quoted the letter of Cardinal Antonelli at the time of the Vatican Council, a letter which asserted the perfect authoritativeness of the decrees passed at that Council; and added these significant paragraphs :—

“ This declaration was made by the Cardinal in answer to the objection of some persons who had thought that the decrees of the Vatican Council, although they had been solemnly defined and confirmed by the Sovereign Pontiff in the Council itself, might require some further promulgation as a condition of their being regarded as publicly binding upon the whole Church.

“ Events which unhappily are notorious induce us to make known to the Faithful, lest any should be misled by the words or example of one or two who still profess to be Catholic, that whosoever does not in his heart receive and believe the doctrine of the Immaculate Conception and the doctrine of the Infallibility of the Vicar of Jesus Christ, as they have been defined by the Supreme Authority of the Church, does by that very fact cease to be a Catholic.

“ The Encyclical *Ineffabilis Deus*, by which, on the 8th of December, 1854, the Sovereign Pontiff defined ‘ that the most blessed Virgin Mary was, by a singular grace and privilege of Almighty God, and by reason of the merits of Jesus Christ the Saviour of mankind, preserved in the first moment of her conception free from all stain of original sin,’ contained these words :—

“ ‘ Wherefore, if any persons, which God forbid, shall presume to think in their hearts otherwise than we have now defined, let them know that they are condemned by their own judgment, that they have suffered shipwreck in faith, and have fallen away from the unity of the Church.’

“ In like manner, the Constitution of the Vatican Council which defined that ‘ the Roman Pontiff, when he speaks *ex cathedrâ*—that is, when discharging the office of Pastor and Teacher of all Christians, he, by virtue of his supreme Apostolic authority, defines a doctrine of faith or morals to be held by the Universal Church’—is infallible, ended with these words :—

“ ‘ And if any one, which God forbid, shall presume to contradict this our definition, let him be anathema.’

“ It has come to our knowledge that some who openly refuse to believe the said doctrines, persist nevertheless in calling themselves Catholics, and give out that they go to Confession and to Holy Communion in the Catholic Church. We therefore hereby warn them that, in so doing, they deceive our clergy by concealing their unbelief, and that in every such Confession and Communion they commit a sacrilege to their own greater condemnation.”

This practically amounted to an excommunication of the “ Dollingerites,” an excommunication adapted to modern usages as was not unaptly remarked. Lord Acton, and those who took the same line that he had done, were told in effect that they had by their heretical opinions cut themselves off from com-

munion with their Church; and that their not being formally excommunicated was only because, by their denial of Catholic doctrines, they had, *ipso facto*, excommunicated themselves.

At Rome itself, the *Voce della Verità*, one of the leading organs of Ultramontane opinion, put forth an article immediately on the appearance of the telegram announcing Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet. It ascribed its publication to the alarm occasioned by the progress Catholicism was making in England. "The innumerable conversions," said the *Voce*, "which are occurring daily in England, and which are the presage of the return of that Island of the Saints to the centre of unity, have created alarm among the men who are the most tenacious of Anglicanism. One of these is the famous (*il famoso*) Gladstone, who, as a telegram informs us, has just published a book against Catholic Rome. He, William Gladstone, who loves our literature, our arts, and, it would seem, even our country—he, who seemed to entertain a reverence (*culto*) for the Pope, and a profound respect for the Catholic religion—has chosen this moment, when the Holy See is despoiled and imprisoned, and the Catholic Church cruelly attacked, to rise against us, not only without reason but against reason. Can this be to clear himself of the suspicion of hidden Catholicism? Can it be through the conversations he had with Dollinger, whom he went to visit in Germany in September last?"

The *Osservatore*, praising those who had risen to confute Gladstone's pamphlet, said: "We conclude by expressing our hope, which is also an ardent desire, that the Protestants of England, and above all Signor Gladstone, will attentively read again the stupendous (*stupenda*) letter of Monsignor Manning. It is not possible but that those courteous but grave words will have great efficacy upon well-disposed minds proud of their liberty. It is not possible but that they will recognise at once that the saintly Prelate is not a timid defender of a lost cause nor a leader of slaves, but a true Englishman, a true Christian, a man perhaps destined to reconduct to the fold of Christ the descendants of so many saints, the most sober-minded men, perhaps, who exist. God grant that Signor Gladstone may be among the first."

And, to set against the determined Protestantism of the mass of the English people, there were no doubt certain strata of society at this time—chiefly among the upper classes—in which a tendency to Romanism was very manifest. One important and distinguished convert in particular, the Papacy had to boast of in the Marquis of Ripon, formerly known as Earl de Grey—a Liberal, a member of Gladstone's administration; a politician whose antecedents had not, to the world at large, connected him in any way with the religious workings of modern thought, least of all, perhaps, with Romish proclivities. Lord Ripon was Grand Master of the English Freemasons; and his unexpected resignation of this post—in which the Prince of Wales was subsequently chosen to succeed him—was the immediate precursor of the announcement that he

had joined a Church to which the Society of Freemasons was an offence.

Again, the trumpeters of Papistical successes might execute a flourish over the pilgrimage of four hundred devotees to the shrine of St. Edmund of Abingdon, at Pontigny, which started from Victoria Station to Dieppe on the 1st of September, the indefatigable Archbishop Manning having preceded them. We quote from a contemporary report some touches of description with reference to this strange episode of English religious life in the fourth decade of Queen Victoria's reign:—

“The assembly was of a very miscellaneous character, but was chiefly distinguished from that of last year by the vast number of priests who accompanied it. At a fair estimate priests and seminarians must have formed a third of the whole body. There were not, comparatively, so many women as last year, though there were many very young faces, both of boys and girls, to be seen, some of whom could scarcely have been more than twelve or thirteen years old. The assembly displayed all the characteristics both in dress and deportment common to a body of excursionists, and a pretty good business was done at the newspaper stalls and in the refreshment rooms. A badge was provided for the pilgrimage—a scarlet shield on a white ground, surmounted by a cross; but, so far as could be seen, very few thought well to adorn themselves with it, and by far the larger part bore no mark bespeaking their errand. Different, too, from last year, very few distinguished persons were to be seen upon the platform. Lord Edward Howard and Lord Gainsborough were alone discernible.

“A programme of prayers for the whole journey had been drawn up in the form of a ‘Manual of Devotions;’ and, according to the instructions as thus set forth, the pious excursionists had plenty to occupy their time, both on the railway and on the steamboat, and to relieve (or intensify) the tedium and discomfort usually attending such a journey. Between London and Newhaven the time was beguiled by prayers, led in the different compartments by priests distributed for the purpose, for the Pope and his persecuted Church, and for the conversion of bad Catholics. In the port of Dieppe the pilgrims indulged in a few hymns, while the journey between Dieppe and Paris was enlivened by prayers for the conversion of England and similar desirable objects.

“Arriving at Paris the pilgrims attended mass in the church of Notre Dame des Victoires. They shortly afterwards left by railway for St. Florentin, which they reached about one o'clock. They were received at the railway station by the superior of the Convent of Pontigny, to which town they immediately proceeded. Vehicles of all kinds were waiting at the station, and about two or three hundred persons were collected, by whom the pilgrims were respectfully received. Those of them who were unable to walk went in carriages, but the rest formed a procession, and they slowly marched out of the station carrying five banners, and singing Latin canticles.

“Notwithstanding the heat the pilgrims accomplished the distance (eight kilometres) between the St Florentin railway station and Pontigny in three hours without exhibiting signs of excessive fatigue. Lord Edward Howard, the brother of the Duke of Norfolk, marched at the head of the procession, bearing the banner of the pilgrimage. Fifty pilgrims followed, carrying hymn-books in their hands, after whom came Lord Gainsborough, with the banner of St. Edward, attended by the clergy of the diocese of Westminster. Monsignor Stonor and Dr. Clifford, with the banner of the College of St. Edmund, came next, followed by the students and professors, who were headed by the president of the college, Monsignor Paterson. Then came Lord Douglas, bearing the banner of St. Thomas of Canterbury, followed by the students, professors, and rector of the seminary of St. Thomas. The procession closed with the Bishop of Amycla, coadjutor of the Archbishop of Westminster. Archbishop Manning, and several priests and laymen, who have been here during the last two days, went to meet the procession, together with the Fathers of the Abbey and several French ecclesiastics. The procession arrived at Pontigny at five p.m., and, after a short prayer had been offered up in the church, the pilgrims proceeded to the refectory of the monastery, where dinner was served. Those pilgrims who had not succeeded in obtaining quarters at the monastery, and the ladies of the pilgrimage, then went to get lodgings, which, however, were only obtained with difficulty, notwithstanding the utmost activity on the part of the commissioners.”

But in reality the proportions of this pilgrimage were very disappointing to those who had been concerned in promoting it. The number of four hundred was considered very far from encouraging as an augury for the future or permanent success of such undertakings in England. At one time the project had seemed likely to fail altogether, and it was said that many of the party had to be bribed by the offer of free excursion tickets, to undertake the holy act!

Before quitting the subject of controversial excitement, we must allude to the enormous avidity with which Mr. Gladstone's *brochures* were devoured by the reading world. The number of the *Contemporary Review* in which his Essay on Ritualism appeared, ran through fifteen editions in rapid succession. Of the pamphlet on the Vatican Decrees 100,000 copies had been sold within a month, the issue of a cheap sixpenny reprint not impeding the sale of the larger edition.

Turning to the working-classes of society in England this year, we find them occupied with very different disputes from those which exercised the minds of theorists on civil and religious allegiance. The practical question with labourers in all branches of industry, was how to secure what they considered sufficiently high remuneration for their labour. Their employers on the other hand had to decide how not to pay them more than would ensure

for themselves a sufficiently high rate of profits on their expended capital. The dispute, which had till lately been confined to the departments of mining industry and trade, had, under the presiding agitation of Mr. Joseph Arch and his allies, been extended to the agricultural industry of the country, and it was in the farming districts of the Eastern Counties that the warfare at this time assumed its prominent features. In the coal and iron trade also, however, strikes occurred in consequence of the reduction in wages which began early this year after the long period of inflation. From October, 1871, the increase had been constant, varying, for hewers, in the different districts, from fifty to eighty-six per cent. But early in 1874 a change began. The inflated price of coal during the past year had rapidly operated to limit consumption. Iron had been less in demand, owing to the same cause. The demand being less, a smaller amount of labour was needed to furnish the supply: and the men who had been enjoying exceptionally high wages, found themselves confronted with a reduction of ten or fifteen, or, as in Durham, Northumberland, and South Staffordshire, twenty per cent. The local strikes that ensued on this state of things were numerous; but they were not of a formidable character. In some cases, indeed, the men quietly acquiesced. In every case of dispute the employers of labour proved substantially victorious. The increasing prevalence of the system of arbitration, and the improving knowledge on both sides of the economic conditions of the question, took away from these colliery and mining strikes much of the bitterness of the old feeling. An interview between Mr. Gladstone and some of the men on strike at the Aston Hall Colliery, in fact, was characteristic of the present phase of the contest. The men on strike had not only declined to accept a compromise as to terms, but they had refused to resume work on any terms, unless four non-union men who had been working during the strike were dismissed. Mr. Gladstone received them at the Vestry-room, Hawarden, and reasoned with them on the tyranny of this last proceeding. He said:—

“A question arose in regard to the amount of wages, and as I understand, four workmen in the pit differed from the majority of the workmen, as they thought fit to accept the wages offered by the company, or to make some terms with them, and to continue work upon those terms. The majority in the exercise of their undoubted right—I don’t care a pin whether the instruction came from the Central Union or not if they chose to place confidence in it—refused to work for less than what they considered to be the value of their labour; but these men who thought otherwise, though they were only four, had as good right to form an opinion as the majority had; and if we have come in this country to the day when the majority shall endeavour to put down the minority and refuse freedom of opinion to those who are fewer in numbers, in my opinion, the country will be one of which I should say the sooner we get out of it the better.

"Your condition is different from that of other labourers. The agricultural labourers till quite lately were not aware that they had any power in their own hands arising from their own labour, but they have been making demands of late, and I must say, so far as I have seen, those demands have been moderate demands. But I never heard of a case throughout the whole country where agricultural labourers have gone to a farmer and said, 'Such and such persons differ from us. They refused to strike when we struck, and we require you to turn them off, or else we will not go back to work.' Your position is an excellent position. You have an excellent organisation, an immense establishment all through the country by which you can communicate one with another; you are a large body discharging a difficult and arduous occupation—very difficult, very arduous; don't suppose I make light of that. It is no small thing in my opinion for a man to go down below the surface of the earth, away from the light of the sun, and spend a considerable portion of his life there. You ought to be well paid; I am glad you are well paid. But let me tell you that no portion of the community has advanced so much within the last forty or fifty years as yourselves. It is hardly credible. One can hardly understand how it could have been."—After referring to a local incident to contrast the past condition of the miner when he received only two shillings a day, with the present, Mr. Gladstone continued:—"Just think of the immense change in your condition. Ought you not to be satisfied with it? Why should you endeavour to press your opinion upon four men? They may be right and you wrong, or you wrong and they right. I do not presume to give an opinion upon that; but as they have no right to interfere with you, so you have no right to interfere with them. As Englishmen, as Welshmen, I appeal to you not to interfere with them. Give them liberty; let them exercise their own judgment. You are quite strong enough in your endeavour to keep up the wages, but don't interfere with others who are taking a different course. You will destroy the whole moral strength of your position if you do it."

With this, and a great deal more of his copious eloquence, Mr. Gladstone argued out the matter with the disaffected miners; and notwithstanding the sarcastic passages of the daily press, he had the satisfaction of finding that his words did not merely beat the air. The miners retired to think over what he had said, and ended by rescinding their resolution against the non-Union men.

The recent extension of the disputes between labour and capital to the department of agricultural industry, had resulted in the formation of two antagonistic combinations, the National Agricultural Labourers' Union, and the Farmers' Association. In the Spring of 1873, the labourers in the neighbourhood of Exning, in Suffolk, demanded an increase of 1s. per week in wages, the previous rate having been 12s.; the demand was granted by the farmers, but they declared that they had acted without any re-

ference to the forces of the National Union to which the labourers themselves were ready to ascribe the concession. Whether, however, it was due to the National Union or not, in the first instance, it was certainly under the direction of the National Union that a first demand was made in February this year (1874), for a similar increase of 1s. per week. The demand was one which from the farmers' point of view could not be granted at the time and under the circumstances, without a dangerous surrender of their independence, and they refused the increase. Upon this, the men struck work. The next step was the meeting of the District Farmers' Association at Newmarket, in March, when the resolution was taken that no alteration should be made in hours or wages, and that as long as the men should continue on strike, all hands belonging to the Union should be locked out. To these resolutions another more general one was added a few days afterwards, to the effect that "members of the Association should not in future employ any man to work for them who was a member of the Union."

Now this declaration provoked a great deal of animadversion in the public mind, and was defended on the other hand by some cogent reasons. To deny the labourers a right of combination in their own interests, was manifestly beyond the province of the farmer; but he might fairly, in the exigencies of actual warfare, refuse to employ those who were making use of the machinery of combination to force him into a line of action contrary to what he considered to be his interests. In fact, the case was simply one where interest was arranged against interest, and where there was no abstract right on one side or the other. The East Suffolk farmers had been, as a rule, friendly and indulgent to their men; and it was remarked that the men did not even now shew themselves insensible to the fact, and aimed at carrying out their views in no bitter spirit. The Bishop of Manchester, indeed, took up the question on their side and against the farmers, as though the latter were sinning against moral obligations, or as he put it, acting as though they were "mad" in view of future dangers, in excluding Union men, and in not granting their labourers as much as 15s. per week wages; but political economists considered his letter as neither philosophical nor discreet. Yet the farmers, in the heat of conflict, had taken too broad an issue. To exclude Union men as a temporary strategical move, was one thing; to lock their doors permanently against all Unionists, on principle, was an unwarrantable ignoring of the right of labour to peaceable combinations in its own interest. Doubtless the farmers would not have contested the right of their men to form local unions, if that had been all. What did anger them was that they should be dictated to by some central and distant council, seated at Leamington or elsewhere, and controlled by Mr. Joseph Arch and his associates.

War being declared, the question was, which party could be driven to yield first. Before the farmer, in the future, loomed the

exigencies of harvest time. The labourer had to calculate on the length of period for which the funds of the Union would be able to support him in idleness at the rate of 9s. a week.

The first effect of the lock out was to increase rapidly the number of Union men. Popular feeling was on their side. Glasgow miners, Manchester artisans, Dorsetshire peasants, all held meetings to show their sympathy with the discharged labourers; philanthropic essayists wrote in their favour; and trades unions in all parts of the country united to supply the Agricultural Labourers' Union with funds to carry on the warfare.

Various attempts were made at arbitration. Early in April, Mr. Ball, a delegate of the Union, offered to receive proposals from the masters; but the one condition on which he insisted, viz. that the men should be allowed to retain their connection with the Union, was not admitted, and the negotiation broke down.

Secondly. Mr. Mundella, M.P. on April 11 suggested terms of compromise; but again, though the National Union were ready to endorse them, the farmers refused.

Thirdly. An offer was made by the Littleport branch of the Agricultural Labourers' Union to return to work at 15s. per week as the lowest rate of wages, with right of remaining in the Union. This, naturally, was rejected also.

Fourthly. Lord Waveney, one of the largest landed proprietors in Suffolk, made a futile proposal to institute committees of arbitration formed of the resident landowners in each union.

Fifthly. Mr. Brand, Speaker of the House of Commons, tried to mediate, by suggesting to the chairman of the League certain modifications of the objectionable rules, and at the same time recommending the farmers to recognise the Union. Again they refused: "Let us so fight the Union now," said one orator, "that we may never hear of it again. There is no middle course. Arbitration stinks in the nostrils of us all, and I hope we shall have nothing to do with it."

Sixthly. On May 7 an attempt not quite so barren of results, was made by Mr. Samuel Morley and Mr. Dixon, members of Parliament, to strike out conditions of compromise with a committee of farmers. The Lincolnshire Labour League consenting to suspend its objectionable rules with a view to withdrawing them altogether, the farmers relaxed on the subject of the Union; and in Lincolnshire, on May 23, the strike and the lock-out were simultaneously withdrawn.

But the Lincolnshire labourers were few in proportion to those of Suffolk; and the concession of the Lincolnshire farmers did not influence the farmers of Suffolk. These last refused an offer made by Messrs. Morley and Dixon on behalf of the National Union, to the effect that the men were ready to work without any increase on present wages, if only the inhibition of Union membership were withdrawn. The farmers of Newmarket and Bury St. Edmund's met, and again positively refused to recognise

the Union. And a few days after, the National Union cancelled their own concession, and affirmed that any settlement which did not secure increase of wages would be unsatisfactory. So the hostile forces remained for the most part in their old position.

“At the beginning of June there were about 2000 men locked out” (we here quote from an article in *Blackwood's Magazine*, from which some of our previous statements have been taken). “On June 6 the West Suffolk Farmers' Defence Association met, and resolved, ‘That this Association cannot recognise the Unions as at present constituted; and until the time and power of striking are modified, and the course of action now adopted by the Unions, discontinued, it must decline the overtures of the independent supporters of the Unions.’ This resolution was explained to mean that the association would have nothing whatever to do with delegates, and would decline the overtures of independent supporters of the Unions, till the striking power was expunged from the Union rules, till the voices of Mr. Arch, Mr. Ball and Mr. Taylor were no more heard to influence the men, and till the *Labourers' Chronicle* was suppressed. According to this arrangement, Unionism would or might continue to exist; but so far from there being thereafter any effective combination of the men, even for legitimate and proper objects, only a union of that harmless sort in which the farmers, and not the combiners, were to judge what were fit and proper objects to combine for, would be allowed. With a Union so constituted, the farmers would consent to negotiate; but obviously the men would scarcely find it worth their while to belong to it. Undoubtedly the permitted Union would be a very ‘harmless’ Union indeed. As one of the delegates sarcastically said about it: ‘If the men would allow their hands to be tied behind them, the employers would be ready to fight them.’”

The getting in of the hay-harvest, the “haysel,” as it is called in Suffolk, had been looked forward to as a crisis in the contest. Now, thought the labourers and their friends, the farmers will never be able to do without the help of the hands they have discarded. But circumstances proved favourable to the farmers. The crop was a light one, and it was got in without difficulty by the aid of machinery and by such unskilled labour as was to be had. And as the wheat-harvest drew near, the employers continued to shew no dismay; while the labourers, with lessening hope of harvest wages, began to pine on their Union pittance and to distrust the omnipotence of their boasted League. On July 1, an expedition of some sixty or seventy of them started on a “pilgrimage” to the large towns of the manufacturing districts to elicit sympathy and support. There was keen competition amongst the men, tired of their fourteen weeks' idleness, for the privilege of joining this expedition, of which the following account is given in contemporary notes:

“Under the direction of Mr. Henry Taylor, the general secre-

tary of the Union, the men left Newmarket on June 29. They each wore blue ribbons, and some carried flags, while others collected money along the route. The procession was headed by a waggon drawn by one horse, on which were placarded the words 'Money-box,' from which one was given to understand that ample provision had been made for conveying almost any sum that would be forthcoming. Cambridge was the first town through which the procession marched, headed by two men carrying a large banner with the letters 'N.A.L.U.' embroidered on it; the procession went through the town, singing what were termed Union songs, the sale of which, on a broad sheet, at one penny each, appeared the most money-producing element in the whole affair. At the Black Swan, in Butcher Row, substantial viands had been provided by the sole liberality of Mr. Henry Thomas Hall, Town Councillor of Cambridge. An open-air meeting, at which that gentleman presided, was afterwards held on the Common. It was addressed by Mr. Hall, Mr Taylor, and others. Resolutions were passed in favour of the men, and a collection made in aid of their support amongst the crowd. Some thousands of people were assembled. The money collected in Cambridge amounted to 25*l*.

"The next morning, before continuing their journey, the labourers formed into a procession, and again marched through the principal streets of Cambridge, but the enthusiasm evinced by the natives in favour of the men was not particularly great. The party then set out for Bedford, walking to Lord's Bridge, a small station on the London and North-Western Railway, whence they went by train to Gamlingay. Here they again took to the road, and marched through Potton, where they stopped for dinner, to Sandy, the remainder of the journey to Bedford being accomplished once more by the aid of the railway, where they arrived about five o'clock. Half an hour's rest and a few cups of tea and coffee having been consumed (no beer), the party again started with flags flying, and headed by a brass band, for the new Market Hill, where a meeting had been arranged for under the chairmanship of Mr. H. Wright, a landowner of Luton.

"On Wednesday the men proceeded through Olney to Northampton, where they halted for the night. They were enthusiastically received by the working inhabitants of the town and provided with refreshment. Part of the journey was done by rail.

"On Sunday night the men slept at West Bromwich, and started in the morning for Wolverhampton. The route was through Wednesbury, and a more disagreeable walk the men could not possibly have had—dirty, smoky, black-looking roads, with no scenery whatever at any part of the ten miles' journey. No stoppage of any kind was made anywhere on the route except at Wednesbury, and that was only for a minute or two. Here, and in fact all along the route, the natives seemed very much astonished at the pilgrims, but still seemed to take an interest

in them, and not a few gave them a copper or two. Wolverhampton was reached at about two o'clock, and at the entrance to the town the party were met by a very good band of music and a large crowd, as usual. Dinner took place immediately after their arrival, and was served at Mr. Walsh's factory, that gentleman bearing the expense thereof. After dinner, and when they had rested for about an hour, they again set off in procession, with the band and a large crowd of persons, to parade the streets, which they did for the next two or three hours. In the evening there was a meeting, and a large amount of money was obtained. The amount subscribed at Birmingham reached the large sum of over 150*l*."

It was evident that the strike was being starved out for want of funds. The employers had been emphatically victorious. They had relied with confidence on their knowledge of their own district, and of the character and habits of the population. The amount of labour hitherto employed by the Eastern Counties' farmer had as a rule been over and above what was actually needed; a margin being habitually expended on the finish and perfection for which the art in those regions was famous. Now on the present occasion, as soon as the bulk of the labourers was dismissed, all unnecessary work was at once suspended; in many places the farmer himself and his family put their hands to the business. There was a sufficient supply of new applicants, who if less skilful than those they succeeded, were competent to tide the farmer through his harvest needs. The hot summer accelerated by a week or two the termination of the strife. The harvest was more than usually prolific. After the middle of July the discontented labourers became aware that, what with machinery and new hands, the masters could dispense with their assistance, suffering nothing worse than some delay and some unimportant increase of expense. The Council of the Union saw that to subsidise the strike any longer was useless. Accordingly they announced that their funds no longer sufficing for the distribution of the customary allowances, they could henceforth only assist their clients to emigrate, either to other parts of England, or to America and Canada.

The following important resolution was passed at the weekly meeting held at Leamington by the Executive Council of the National Agricultural Labourers' Union, Mr. Joseph Arch being in the chair:—"That in the face of the harsh and prolonged lock-out of the farm labourers in the Eastern Counties, this committee cannot feel justified in supporting them in enforced idleness indefinitely, nor can they seek the public support continually while the harvest is waiting to be gathered. The committee, therefore, resolve to place migration and emigration at the disposal of the labourers, or the alternative of depending upon their own resources." A committee was appointed to carry out this resolution, and the Executive Committee voted 600*l*. for the relief of the locked-out Unionists, whose numbers were now reduced by one-half.

The last meeting of the marching party was held at Halifax on August 8. Mr. H. Taylor, secretary to the Labourers' Union, said he recognised no defeat, and that although their funds were exhausted, the seeds of combination had been sown, and the time was not far distant when the labourers would be a mighty and intelligent power in the State. This, he said, was the last place the company of labourers would visit on the pilgrimage, and they had cleared about 700*l.* by their efforts. Mr. Arch, who was loudly cheered, said the root of the evil lay in the monopoly of the land, and that monopoly must be removed. It was high time the working men rose *en masse* and demanded a Commission for the inspection of the land; and where it was uncultivated, let the State give the owner proper value for it, take it out of his hands, and cultivate it for the people.

The remnant of the hundred "pilgrim" labourers broke up their band at Halifax on August 10, and sixteen of them returned by rail to Newmarket. The other five remained in Halifax, where they obtained work, with a good prospect of regular employment.

From some statistics collected by the National Agricultural Labourers' Union, it appears that the struggle lasted about eighteen weeks, and cost the Union, in money expended for lock-out pay, migration and emigration, nearly 25,000*l.* Originally 2,400 men were locked out, of whom 870 returned to work without surrendering their tickets; 400 migrated, 440 emigrated, and 350 returned to work since the lock-out pay was stopped, several of these last having abandoned the Union. There were still 350 unemployed. The secretary attributed the failure of the struggle to want of union and cohesion amongst the men; the refusal of labourers to migrate to districts where work and better wages could be obtained; and the injudicious admission of old men into the Union, who expected life annuities from its funds.

CHAPTER V.

Indian Famine—Measures of Relief—Lord Northbrook's Policy—Bombay Riots—Supposed Capture of Nana Sahib—Internal Politics of India—Afghanistan—Mahratta Chiefs—Guicowar of Baroda—Annexation of the Fiji Islands—Zulu Revolt: Langibalele—Gold Coast. Suppression of Slavery—David Livingstone—Proposed Reciprocity Treaty between Canada and United States—Government Scheme for Arctic Expedition.

THE Queen's speech on the Prorogation of Parliament contained a clause expressive of relief from a calamity which had weighed on the public mind during the early part of the year; and of appreciation of the courage and skill by which, instrumentally, that calamity had been surmounted.

"I am thankful to say," so the clause was worded, "that the famine in India has, as yet, been attended with little mortality—a result mainly attributable, under Providence, to the precautions taken by my Indian Government. The strenuous exertions of my Viceroy and of the officers serving under him merit my high approbation."

Though we have had to deal with the subject during the course of our Parliamentary survey, it will be requisite here to give some account of the scarcity as it showed itself in India, and of the local measures which were adopted to prevent several millions of natives from perishing from starvation.

The prospects of famine with which a large part of Bengal was threatened at the close of the last year, wore no more encouraging aspect when Christmas was past. Over a tract of country estimated to contain no less than twenty-eight millions of people, comprising several important provinces of Bengal and Behar, the great harvest of the year, usually garnered in December, was hopelessly withering on the ground for want of rain. In the granaries, unfortunately, the stocks were unusually low. Till the April harvest should be reaped, none of the natural supplies could be expected; and should the April harvest, too, prove a failure, the situation would be doubly serious. Sir George Campbell, Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, reviewed the situation as early as October 1873, when the failure of the autumn rains had already made the impending scarcity of three months at all events, a certainty. To meet the emergency he proposed to stop all exportation of grain from British India, to import grain into the distressed districts, and store it at convenient depôts, to provide work for those who were able to work, and to create an effective machinery for distributing gratuitous relief to those who, from age, infirmity or other causes, could not be expected to do manual labour.

Lord Northbrook was at this time at Simla. On receiving intelligence of the state of things in the distressed districts, he hastened to Calcutta, regardless of the sanitary fears which so often detain Indian officials from the headquarters of Government, and convinced that there he could best undertake the personal supervision of the arrangements which had to be made, and send and receive the necessary information. The first question he had to consider was, whether he should comply with Sir George Campbell's suggestion, and prohibit the export of all grain from India? To ordinary observers it might seem the plain and obvious dictate of common sense so to do. It would have been one of the most popular measures he could have adopted. It was strongly urged by the native press; and the Lieutenant-Governor's advocacy of it gave it the sanction of more than mere random approval. But the Viceroy had courage to think for himself and to resist the pressure that was put upon him. His reasons for refusing to forbid the export may be best expressed in the minutes which he wrote in his own justification:—

"It seems to me that an export trade in food grains is a great advantage to a country in the condition of Bengal, raising its own food supplies, having no import trade in food, and whose population is poor. The existence of such an export insures the production in ordinary years of more food than is required to meet the demands of the people. The natural rise of prices in times of scarcity must divert a portion of the ordinary export to home consumption, and thus a reserve easily and readily available is habitually maintained. It follows that any measure that would diminish the export trade in common rice from Bengal, would weaken the power of the country to meet any future period of scarcity. Trade is readily directed from one channel to another. The interference by Government with its free course may easily destroy it. If we refuse to supply our ordinary customers at any price, we oblige them to have recourse to other markets, and it is impossible to assume that when we want them again they will return to us. Bearing in mind, therefore, the permanent harm that might be done by an interference with the export trade in food grains, and *being satisfied that the Government could without difficulty bring in a larger quantity of rice than is exported even in ordinary years*, I had no hesitation in preferring the latter course. Our real difficulty in dealing with the present distress will probably be found not in any general deficiency of food supplies throughout the country, but in the transport of those supplies into the interior, and in making arrangements for distributing them."

That Lord Northbrook had decided rightly and wisely, was fully proved by the course of events, though for a time he had to encounter considerable hostility from Sir George Campbell and his supporters, among whom were to be reckoned not only persons and journals of Indian notoriety, but the most important and influential of our English newspapers, the *Times* itself. On the other hand, as we have already noticed, Lord Salisbury, the new Secretary of State for Indian Affairs, upheld his policy with a generous trustfulness which contributed essentially to the final happy triumph of administrative energy and sagacity over a threatened evil of fearful magnitude.

The scarcity itself assumed the worst proportions anticipated. Not only the autumn crop, but the April crop, too, proved a failure. The stock of rice which the Government had to purchase eventually, amounted in round numbers to 500,000 tons. Still there was no lack of reservoirs. The Punjab, the North West Provinces, and Burmah, contained almost inexhaustible supplies. The Government had but to come in as a purchaser to secure a sufficiency in amount. The real difficulty was how to distribute these supplies when bought: how to pour them into the distressed districts so as to save three and-a-half millions of helpless people, for seven months, from starving.

In the month of April, Sir George Campbell had relinquished his post of Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and returned to England for the re-establishment of his health. Sir Richard Temple at once succeeded to his office and continued to labour with untiring energy at the contest with the famine fiend, till the plentiful rains at the end of June came to renew suspended agricultural operations in the distressed provinces, and to dissipate any fears of prolonged scarcity. Besides the collection and distribution of grain during the famine months, the Government had had another hard problem to solve, and that was how to give employment to those who could work for wages, and whose usual rural occupations were at a standstill. "In anticipation of the distress which he felt sure must befall the labouring classes in the early spring," says the writer in *Fraser*, "Lord Northbrook had, with wise forethought, ordered the construction of two great public works, which, while furnishing immediate relief to the people, would be of lasting benefit to the country. The first was the extension of the Soane irrigation canal; the second the construction of the Northern Bengal Railway. In addition to these great public undertakings, which could absorb any quantity of labour, a system of local relief works was carefully sketched out for each of the distressed districts. The consequence was that when actual distress first made its appearance among the labouring classes, towards the end of January, the local officers were in a position to find employment for the vast multitude that clamoured for relief. And yet the rush to these relief works was enormous. At the beginning of February the Government found that they had 287,000 labourers to provide for; by the beginning of March the numbers had risen to 393,000; by the end of March to 785,000; and by the end of May to 1,500,000. The maximum was reached in the middle of June, when the almost incredible number of 1,770,000 persons were receiving daily wages from the Government."

It was feared by many that the system of Government relief works would demoralise the people and deter them from their normal industrial occupations. But these fears proved unfounded. As soon as the rains of June opened the door again to agricultural operations, the people left the relief works again as rapidly as they had rushed to them. Within the first fortnight of July, the numbers had decreased by nearly a million.

The cost to the Government of the relief operations was necessarily very heavy; and the aged and helpless part of the population had to be provided for gratuitously. Lord Northbrook had wisely and mercifully resolved that no "hard and fast" test should be applied as the invariable condition of relief.

And instead of leaving the weak and discouraged to perish for want of the energy even to seek out the localised centres of supply, it was decided to organise a system by which the different villages should be visited, and the condition of their inhabitants ascertained. In no previous Indian famine had this measure been effectively attempted. It was now carried out with such vigour and rapidity that before the end of May no less than 29,000 villages had been brought under official inspection, and more than half-a-million of paupers were receiving charitable relief from the Government.

An estimate of the whole probable cost of the famine to Government was roughly put at ten millions by the writer whose remarks we have been taking as the basis of our narrative. As to the efficiency of the measures adopted, it is enough to say that during the continuance of the relief system, it was supposed that fewer persons died of starvation in Bengal and Behar than in an ordinary year.

Some riots took place at Bombay early in the year, owing partly to religious quarrels between the Parsees and their neighbours. Sir Philip Wodehouse, the Governor, delayed to call out the troops till the police were breaking down, believing his own powers to be restricted in the matter; and this called forth a letter from Lord Salisbury, who instructed him that extreme constitutional theories could not be safely imported into India, and that there, troops might be legitimately used to make a riot impossible. Three months after the riots, Sir Philip Wodehouse wrote to Lord Salisbury to say that the Bombay Government was fully sensible of its obligations, and much wished to see the police force increased; but that it was unfortunately placed in a very delicate and embarrassing position. It had not got the requisite funds, and no contribution whatever was made from Imperial or provincial sources. The allotment received by Bombay under the decentralisation scheme was so scanty that the charge for the proper amount to maintain an adequate police force could not be met; and although the Bombay Government had recently made a suggestion by which its funds would be increased, this suggestion had been negatived by the Governor-General in Council. Such was the picture drawn by the Governor of Bombay. But then came Lord Northbrook's turn, and he gave Lord Salisbury his account of the deplorable destitution of Bombay. When, in 1870, the Provincial Service system was commenced, the Central Government had to consider what aid it should give to Bombay, and what Bombay needed. Among other sums an amount of 10,000*l.* a-year was given specially as a contribution in aid of the Bombay police. But it is part of the new scheme to give the money in a lump, and let the Provincial Government spend it as it pleases. The Bombay Government in the exercise of this discretion chose to take away the 10,000*l.* a-year from the police and apply it to other purposes, and now

with admirable coolness said that not a farthing was given in aid of the police.

In October old memories of a painful kind were revived by the announcement that Nana Sahib, the notorious perpetrator of the Cawnpore massacre in 1857, had been delivered into the hands of the English authorities by the Maharajah Scindia, to whom he had come with no hope of safety, but wearied out with his life of concealment and terror. Such was the story: and a speedy trial and execution were talked of as inevitably the culprit's fate. But soon grave doubts began to be cast on the identity of the prisoner. Seventeen years was a long time to go back upon. The changes in a man's bodily appearance during such a period, especially under the circumstances of the outlaw's existence, might well create doubts; and serious doubts in such a case were equivalent to acquittal. However, it was determined that every reasonable method of investigation should be adopted; and witnesses were called whose testimony varied in its complexion. A medical examination was suggested, and it was believed that, by some of the profession at all events, certain marks on the Nana's person would be recognised. The result of the whole investigation had not transpired by the end of the year, but the general belief was turning into certainty that it was not the miscreant of Bithoor whom the authorities had in their hands, but some impostor, who for unknown reasons had chosen to assume the character. Whether Scindia himself had been imposed upon, or was a party to the fraud, remained an open question.

In the early part of the year, Mr. Forsyth, who had been sent to Kashgar for the purpose, concluded a commercial treaty with Yakoob Bey, the Ruler of Eastern Turkestan. Later in the season a military expedition was sent against some troublesome hill tribes, in the neighbourhood of Assam. This was the only military operation in India for the year; but sinister forebodings were entertained by some who watched the undercurrent of native politics. The affairs of Afghanistan were in a threatening position. The Ameer Shere Ali and his son Yakoob Khan had been for years in a state of growing estrangement. Next to the Government of India, the Ameer was indebted for his present position to this son. It was his courage and military ability that had re-established the Ameer's cause when the Ameer himself was a fugitive before his enemies, and in those days there was no question but that Yakoob Khan was to succeed his father on the throne. But Shere Ali, with all the unreasoning passionateness of an Oriental despot, fixed his heart upon securing the possession for a younger son, Abdoola. In order to obtain this end, having not without difficulty persuaded Yakoob to visit him at Cabul, he treacherously consigned him to prison, his pretence being that Yakoob was intriguing with Persia for the surrender of Herat. It seems impossible that the British Government will not be called upon to interfere authoritatively in a matter which affects so nearly

the tranquillity of our own possessions, as a disputed succession in the dynasty of Afghanistan. There is a movement, too, among the Mahratta chiefs, which has another ominous aspect. Shortly after the arrest of the supposed Nana Sahib by Scindiah, it was made known to the great surprise of the public, that a reconciliation and alliance had been formally solemnised between the two great rival Mahratta chiefs, Scindiah himself, and Holkar, at Durwai, in the territories of the latter. Doubtless it may be said that the reviving energy of the Native Princes who bear sway on the banks of the Nerbudda may signify only an awakening of the princely conscience to the responsibilities of government, and that its result may be an improvement in the condition of the governed, for which there is only too much room. But this is uncertain. What is clear is that there is a real revival of force, and Anglo-Indians are not quite sure how this force may be ultimately directed.

Another great Mahratta chief, Mulharrao, the Guicowar of Baroda, had, by the notorious corruption and profligacy of his administration, called down the remonstrances of Colonel Phayre, the British Resident, who finding his efforts impotent to check the wide-spreading evil, proceeded to lay the facts of the case before the Supreme Government at Calcutta. A Commission of enquiry was appointed under Sir Richard Meade. The revelations it elicited made it necessary for the Viceroy to administer a very grave warning to the Guicowar, to the effect that if he did not amend his ways before the close of 1875 he would certainly be dethroned.

Then followed some very suspicious occurrences. Among the subjects of controversy between his Highness Mulharrao and the British Resident were some of a peculiarly delicate nature. The Guicowar had contracted a marriage of rather a questionable sort; the bridal was a most magnificent and costly ceremony, and the beauty of the bride was the theme of Oriental eulogies of hyperbolic extravagance. Luxmeebye, the new wife of the ruler of Baroda, gave birth shortly afterwards to a child whom Mulharrao urged the Government of India to recognise as his son and heir. The demand for this recognition was made in the first instance through Colonel Phayre, and the resident is understood to have met the Guicowar's request with a discouraging silence, if not with a direct refusal. The claim of Luxmeebye's son was far from being generally recognised in Guzerat, and Colonel Phayre's caution in admitting it may have been dictated by wisdom. It was commonly reported that Luxmeebye had been the wife of a private person before her marriage to the Guicowar; and, as her alleged husband was still living, it was urged that the child was illegitimate. Additional objections were raised on the ground that no child of a foreign woman could lawfully inherit the Sovereignty of a Mahratta Prince. The Supreme Government has, it is said, lately decided that these scruples ought not to prevail, and that there is no reason for rejecting the Guicowar's demand to have

Luxmeebye's son recognised formally as the heir to the principality of Baroda. But, whatever may be the right or wrong of this controversy, it is easy to see how Colonel Phayre had ceased to be an acceptable personage at the Court of the Prince whose policy it was his business to watch and direct.

About the middle of November, while the full bitterness of these disputes was being felt, the Resident's life was attacked in a very remarkable manner. It was Colonel Phayre's custom to drink a glass of sherbet on returning from an early walk, and on the day of the attempted murder his butler had the beverage—"sugared water and fresh pummelo juice"—ready on the table. The Resident began to drink, but before he had drained the glass, he fortunately noticed that the liquid was apparently thickened with some powder, and that it had an unusual and unpleasant taste. A suspicion that all was not right immediately arose; the doctor attached to the Residency was sent for, an emetic was administered, and the contents of the glass were examined. No ill result followed, so far as Colonel Phayre's health was concerned; but an analysis of the contents of the glass is said to have shown that both arsenic and diamond dust had been mingled with the drink. The domestic servants were interrogated; several arrests out of doors were made, and a strict but most secret inquiry was instituted into the plot. Of the results of this inquiry nothing more was known by the end of the year, except that the fact of the attempt to poison has been placed beyond question. Of course, rumours of the wild character in which the Oriental imagination indulges have been rife at Baroda since the discovery of the infamous deed. The detection of an agent, who alleges that he received a large sum from some wealthy and influential persons as part of the price to be paid for the murder of the Resident, and the discovery of the bribe are among these rumours. The sudden poisoning of another of the suspected assassins, and his hurried burial before he could be questioned or taken into custody, are also reported among suspicious occurrences. But it would be very rash to put any confidence in the current gossip of a native community in India, where mendacity takes rank as one of the fine arts, and where the tangled web of perpetually renewed and interwoven intrigues is far too fine to be unravelled by the unaided intelligence of any European.

The British Empire was enlarged this year by the annexation of the Fiji Islands. On the 17th of July, Lord Carnarvon had called attention to the subject in the House of Lords. He stated that in 1872 Lord Kimberley had appointed two Commissioners to proceed to those islands, in consequence of the appeal made to England and to other civilised countries to take them under protection, and that the report of the Commissioners being now presented, it became necessary to deal with the matter, and decide whether, with the consent of the natives, to accept the position or not. A Parliamentary discussion, brought on by a motion of Mr.

McArthur's just before the prorogation, ended in approval of the resolution which had been already taken by Government; and Sir Hercules Robinson, the Governor-General of New South Wales, was instructed to proceed to the islands, and ascertain the disposition of the population. We subjoin an account of the transaction given by the *Times* correspondent:—

“At eleven o'clock on the morning of September 25, Cakobau met Sir Hercules Robinson on board the ‘Dido.’ The King was received by the ‘Dido’ with a Royal salute of twenty-one guns. He acknowledged the compliment by saying ‘*Vinaka*’ (‘Good’). After some conversation on the poop of the vessel, the King went into the captain's cabin to open the negotiation. Those present were Sir Hercules Robinson, Cakobau, Prince Joe, Mr. Innes, Attorney-General of New South Wales; the Hon. W. Hely-Hutchinson, attaché to the Mission; Mr. G. H. de Robeck, his Excellency's private secretary; Mr. D. Wilkinson, interpreter; and Mr. Milne, private secretary to the King. Cakobau was thus wholly removed from the influence of his Ministers. He was a little disconcerted in the morning when he learnt he was not to be accompanied by Mr. Thuiston. Crossing to the vessel in the boat, he said once or twice to Mr. Wilkinson, ‘I feel as if I had lost a hand.’ The King was dressed in black, as before. It had been suggested to him that he would look better in his native costume, but he said, ‘No; the Governor was dressed in dark clothes, and I will meet him in black.’ This business interview lasted nearly two hours. What his Excellency said was translated to the King, clause by clause, and he signified that he fully understood what was translated, before the succeeding sentence was spoken.

“Sir Hercules Robinson, in the first place, expressed the pleasure he felt in meeting Cakobau in this private way, and said he hoped the King would be frank with him, as his object was to do what was best for him and his people. He then explained that the English Government had received the offer of cession made through the Commissioners, but that, in consequence of the conditions attached to the offer, it could not be accepted. Her Majesty's Government could only accept an unconditional cession, so that they might be left free to govern the country properly, while the conditions attached to the proposed cession, would probably have interfered with the good government of the country. Sir Hercules was authorised, in the event of an unconditional cession being offered, and the Chiefs trusting to the justice and the generosity of the English Government, to accept such a cession, and to establish a temporary and provisional Government before leaving the Islands. It would be the wish of the English Government to deal with the Kings, Chiefs, and people, if they placed themselves unreservedly in its power, not only equitably, but most liberally. In the event of the King's agreeing to annexation, the rights, interests and claims of the King and other Chiefs would be recognised and maintained by the British Government, so far as

was consistent with British rule and colonial forms of government. As regarded liabilities, debts, and financial engagements entered into since 1871, the Queen's Government would have them carefully scrutinised and dealt with equitably, and according to the principles of justice and sound public policy. As regarded titles of land, whether made by *bonâ fide* or fictitious sales, and as regarded the King's pension and other smaller matters, the British Government would carefully look into these questions, and they would be settled on an equitable and liberal basis. The King would be supported in accordance with his rank and position, and it would not be necessary for him to draw upon the people for his expenses. It was now for the King simply to say whether he would make an unconditional cession or not. If the King decided he would not make an unconditional cession, Sir Hercules would then have to arrange what must be done. He should like the King to decide now, if he wished anything further said as to the course the British Government would pursue in the event of unconditional cession not being offered. He would go on if the King chose, but he did not wish to confuse him by stating too many points at once.

"Cakobau did not give a direct answer, but replied to his Excellency's statements generally. Sir Hercules was careful to impress upon the King that it would ill consort with the dignity of the British Crown to accept a cession subject to conditions, and that such conditions as those formerly proposed would render acceptance of an offer difficult, if not impracticable. The Home Government had no desire to undertake the government of the islands. They would very much rather not, but in the present condition of the country it had become their duty to accept a cession if made upon dignified and reasonable terms, so as to establish order and secure the maintenance of equal justice, as between the native and white populations. If the King wanted anything beyond that justice and generosity which were to be expected from the Queen's Government, he had better say so at once, and this negotiation could terminate. The King must trust wholly to the Queen of England, or there was an end of the matter, for there could be no half-measures.

"The old King at once apprehended the spirit of the offer, and made cordial response in a similar tone. Replying to the remark that it was not dignified for the Queen of England to accept conditions, he promptly said:—

" 'True, true, the Queen is right; it is not Chief-like to make conditions. I was always opposed to it, but I was overruled. When the Commodore and Consul came here they took different ground to that which you have taken. They kept saying, "Tell us what you want," and pressing me to do so—hence the conditions attached to the offer of cession. If I give a Chief a canoe, and he knows I expect something from him, I do not say, "I give you this canoe on condition of your only sailing it on certain days, or your

not letting such and such a man go in it, or your only using a particular kind of rope with it," but I give him the canoe right out, and trust to his generosity and good faith to make me the return which he knows I expect. If I were to attach those conditions he would probably say, "Bother your canoe, I can do very well without it."

"This very apt illustration shows that Cakobau fully understood the spirit of the negotiation.

"Replying generally, the King said he was very much gratified at the plain, straightforward way in which the case had been put. The greater part of the Chiefs would think what he did was right; but he would take time to consider what he would do. He saw no anxiety for the future, for the future was Britain. For the Chiefs and himself he had no fear; they would always be well off, for the people would always grow yams, and make houses, mats, and canoes for them. It was the people whose interests must be considered. His answer would be given without delay, probably to-morrow or next day.

"Sir Hercules Robinson again asked the King if he thoroughly understood what he meant when he said he would rather not at present discuss what would happen in the event of no cession being made. Cakobau remarked that there was no necessity for discussing the future when the present was not decided upon. If it only concerned himself and the trustworthy Chiefs, they would give up the country to England to-morrow. His Excellency then availed himself of his Ceylon experience to explain, with reference to the apprehension felt that the operation of British laws upon a native population might be harsh, that there was not so much difficulty in the government of natives by Europeans as might be imagined. In Ceylon, where he had lived seven years, there were 3,000,000 natives, who were behind the Fiji natives in civilisation in some respects. It was found that these natives could communicate their discontents and wishes to the Government through their Chiefs, that all evils were promptly remedied, and the people were happy and content to live under British rule, which, after 80 years' experience, they preferred to native rule. In the same way the Fijian people could communicate their wants through their Chiefs, and the system would work as well as in Ceylon. Cakobau expressed great interest in the affairs of Ceylon, and remarked with astonishment that the native population was twenty times that of Fiji. As to the harsh operation of the English law, peace and rest were what the Fijians wanted. These were their riches, for tumult and disquiet were poverty. Of course, labour would be required before fruit could be produced, but there was no wisdom in the Fijian Chief who refused to cede the country. Without English interference, Fiji must become a piece of drift-wood on the sea, to be picked up by the first passer-by.

"In answer to a remark by his Excellency that, as a rule, when white men settled down in countries like Fiji, the natives

were unable to protect themselves until British rule was established, the King spoke of the white settlers in anything but complimentary terms. He said, 'The case is so here. The whites who have come to Fiji are a bad lot; they are mere stalkers on the beach. ("Beach-combers" is the slang term among the whites). The wars here have been far more the result of the interference of intruders than the fault of the Fijians.'

"Sir Hercules Robinson next referred to the land question, in regard to which a good deal of alarm has been created, especially among the white settlers, by the statement of Lord Carnarvon, in the House of Lords on July 17, 'that the land, as a whole, must belong to the Crown.' It was feared that this meant entire surrender, and that there would be no compensation for men who, though they had purchased tracts of land for a small sum, had in reality obtained them at a heavy cost, represented by many years of great privation. His Excellency assured the King that nothing unjust would be done, and made a happy hit with Cakobau by quoting, as the fairest way of arranging the matter, the following provisions, substantially included in the code of laws of the Lau Confederacy (a former confederation of Chiefs in Eastern Fiji, once allied with Cakobau in a general confederation):—'That all lands which can be shown to have been fairly and honestly acquired by whites shall be secured to them; that all lands that are now in the actual use or occupation of any Chief or tribe, and as much land as may be necessary for the probable future support and maintenance of any Chief or tribe, shall be set apart for them; and that all the residue of the land shall go to the Government, not for the personal advantage of Her Majesty or the members of any Government, but for the general good, for the purposes of rule and order.' The more public land there was, urged his Excellency, the less necessity there would be for taxation, the less burdensome to the people would be the maintenance of peace, the administration of justice, and the building of hospitals and other institutions of public utility. For such purposes as these, and not for adding to the wealth of the Queen, was it a matter of necessity to have public land.

"The King said he was very much pleased to hear these views on the land question, and to learn that disputed titles would be finally adjusted. He feared that in some cases there would be suffering on both sides, but it was better that such questions should be set at rest, even at the cost of a little suffering. He was afraid that if they did not cede Fiji, the white stalkers on the beach—the cormorants—would open their maws and swallow them up. The white residents were going about influencing the minds of Tui Cakau and other Chiefs, so as to prevent annexation, fearing that, in case order was established, an end might be put to their lawless proceedings. By annexation the white and black races would be joined together, and it would be impossible to sever them. The Fijians, as a nation, were of an unstable character,

and a white man who wished to get anything out of a Fijian, if he did not succeed in his object to-day would try again to-morrow, until the Fijian was either worried out or over-persuaded, and gave in. But law would bind them together, and the stronger nation would lend stability to the weaker. In Fiji there were two elements besides the Fijians—the Whites and Maafu. Maafu's object had been and was to conquer Fiji. Some years ago he took possession of an island south of the Rewa, and sent an insulting letter to Cakobau, to the effect that Fiji was now divided, but that when he took Rewa it would be united, meaning under his government. Cakobau disliked his policy, not his race (Maafu is a Tongau). When Maafu joined the Fiji Government, the dislike ceased, on Cakobau's side. It was otherwise with Maafu. Since that Chief had joined the Government he had found it impossible to carry out his plans, so he was trying to foment discords to stop the cession, and thereby further his own ends. But the Governor's presence, as the representative of Her Majesty, was a sufficient guarantee of peace. Sir Hercules pointed out that difficulties with Maafu or any other Chief would cease if the islands were ceded to Great Britain, as Cakobau and all the other Chiefs would then become subjects of the Queen. The King again remarked that Maafu had done the country a great deal of harm, his plan being to set the Fijians one against the other; but all that was now over with the arrival of the representative of the Queen. Throughout the interview, Cakobau continually made reference to the fact of Sir Hercules being the immediate representative of the Queen, and seemed pleased and impressed with the circumstance. At the termination of the Conference the King smoked a cigar, took a walk round the ship, and returned to the shore.

“On the following day the King and principal Chiefs of the Leeward Islands discussed the terms submitted by Sir Hercules. The question was debated at length, and it was finally decided to cede the islands to Great Britain, trusting unreservedly to the justice and generosity of the Queen. This morning Cakobau publicly signed the deed of cession drawn up by Mr. Innes, the Attorney-General of New South Wales; and the signatures of Ratu Abel, Tui Bua, Ratu Savanaca, and Ratu Isikeli, were attached at the same time. Sir Hercules Robinson said:—

“‘I accept in the Queen's name the cession, in the spirit in which it has been offered. I think that in this matter the King has acted the part of a great Chief, in consulting as he has done only the interest of his country. From my heart I wish Fiji prosperity, and peace and happiness to her people.’

“His Excellency intimated that he should not himself sign the document until he returned from his trip to the Windward Islands with the signatures of the other Chiefs.

“This afternoon Sir Hercules sailed in the ‘Pearl’ for the Windward Islands to see Maafu and other Chiefs. Ratu Savanaca and Timothy, the King's second son, were on board. The ‘Dido’

flying the Fijian standard at the main, followed with the King and his youngest son, Joe.

“Sir Arthur Hamilton Gordon was appointed the first Governor of Fiji.”

Passing to the African possessions of the British Empire, we are confronted with the circumstances of a revolt in Zulu land, which took place in 1873, but which had the effect of bringing Bishop Colenso over from Natal towards the end of the present year on the chivalrous errand of pleading the cause of a native ruler whom he believed to have been unjustly treated by the colonial authorities. The native ruler's name was Langalibalele. About two years since, the Administration of Natal, within whose borders he was located, had been led to suspect his loyalty and obedience. Such a suspicion, where a white population of 20,000 is surrounded by natives exceeding 250,000 in number, is likely to lead to dangerous exaggerations, and measures of needless severity.

The Natal Government cannot be blamed for not knowing at once that the charges against the suspected chief, Langalibalele, were unfounded, but can scarcely be excused if they were wholly wanting in the discretion necessary for testing their truth. From this initial error all subsequent errors easily arose. The result was that some 15,000 people who were quietly living with their flocks and herds upon the slopes of the mountain range which bounds Natal on the west, were dispersed and scattered no one knows whither, their huts burnt down, and their cattle and horses, to an estimated value of 60,000*l.*, confiscated and destroyed. These, indeed, were not the worst consequences of the failure of wisdom at Natal. A certain number of the tribe were killed under circumstances more agreeable to our notions of Kaffir than of English civilisation; but, as their deaths happened while the Colony was in hot blood, it would be unjust to visit these offences with the severe condemnation which must be passed on what followed. The Chief supposed to be rebellious was taken, was tried, and was condemned to transportation for life. All this occupied some months; and before the sentence was carried into execution the Governor of Natal was informed by the Colonial Office that the sentence passed upon the prisoner was wholly illegal. Somehow or other, however, the despatch conveying this notification was set aside, if not wholly suppressed, and Langalibalele was transported without a hint escaping the Governor or any of his advisers that they had been warned of the illegality of his punishment.

These were the wrongs which roused the spirit of Bishop Colenso; though it should be added that he had another motive for coming to England in the desire to obtain some definite arrangement as to the relation of his Natal Episcopate to the Church of the mother country. When he left England again in December, he let it be known that he had received a communication from Lord Carnarvon in the matter of Langalibalele which he considered to be of a satisfactory nature.

From Natal, our survey takes us to the Gold Coast.

When Sir Garnet Wolseley on his way back to the Coast from Coomassie, had drawn up the "Treaty of Fommanah" with the concurrence of the envoys of Koffee Calcalli, he had desired that it should be sent to him signed, in a fortnight's time. But the Ashantees procrastinated, and it was not till some time after Sir Garnet's return to England, that they made their appearance at Cape Coast Castle and handed over the treaty with "Koffee Calcalli his mark" to the Administrator. Peace was then formally proclaimed and the Ashantee prisoners released. Most of these men were in good health, though a rice diet had in some cases produced dropsy, rice being a watery food, and maize, with plantains and cassada, being the native food on the Gold Coast. The King of Denkera, having refused to give up some prisoners, received a visit from an English officer with a company of Houssas, and was forced not only to deliver the prisoners, but also 110*l.* in gold dust for disobeying orders. The Ashantee envoys came down to Cape Coast a second time, bringing another instalment of the indemnity (the first had been paid at Fommanah), and also a son of the King, with the request that he should receive an education in England.

Lord Carnarvon prepared his scheme of Government, and presented it to Parliament. The Gold Coast settlements and those of Lagos and its dependencies were consolidated, and Captain Strahan, R.A., Administrator of Lagos, was appointed Governor. The West India regiments were relieved of their service in the African settlements, or, to put it more correctly, the African settlements were relieved of the West India regiments, and their place was to be taken by a force of Houssas, and other native troops levied in Africa itself. It was also intended to utilise the hills behind Accra as a Government station; but we do not know whether this project is to be carried out. Old Africans declare that they have heard all these fine schemes talked about often enough, but predict that as soon as public attention is withdrawn from the Gold Coast, matters will go on much as they were before. However, there is reason to hope that an honest and vigorous policy will now supplant the timid and apparently treacherous method of dealing with the natives which brought about the Ashantee War. While the new arrangements were being made upon the Coast, changes still more important were taking place in Ashantee. That country is composed of various tribes which had once been independent, and they now cast off their allegiance to the dominant tribe, and returned to their primitive condition. The King of Ashantee, being quite unable to subdue at the same time the rebellious States of Becqua and Duabin, sent to Cape Coast Castle for assistance, and Captain Lees, an experienced civil official, was despatched to Coomassie. The details of his mission have not been made public; but it seems that Captain Lees made Calcalli clearly understand that it was not one of the duties of the English Government to help him in his quarrels with his

neighbours. Ashantee therefore has ceased to be a nation. About two centuries ago it was a small tribe tributary to the King of Denkeia. It is now as it was then, except that it is independent; and its downfall will be of much advantage to the commerce of the Gold Coast and the well-being of the native tribes.

On November 3, Captain Strahan, the new Governor, met the Kings and Chiefs of the Gold Coast at the Palaver Hall, and delivered to them a long address. After reviewing the course of Ashantee policy, the circumstances which had led to the late war, and the overthrow of the tyranny of Koffee Calcalli by the British army, he continued, "Now, why do I tell you all this? Is it to tell you that the Queen wants you to pay back any portion of the money she has expended for you? Is it to tell you that you must pay for your freedom from Ashantee? Is it to tell you that as she has done so much for you, you must do what you can for yourselves, as she can do no more? Is it to tell you that, as she has saved you from your late danger, you are to expect no further protection from her? No; all she requires and expects from you is obedience to her wishes and those of her people in England. In return for these benefits the Queen requests your aid in putting an end to a thing she and her people abhor. This thing is against a law which no King or Queen of England can ever change. I have pointed out to some of you that the English people buy sheep, fowls, and other live stock, but not men, women, and children. The Queen is determined to put a stop at once to the buying and selling of slaves, either within or without the Protectorate, in any shape, degree, or form; and she will allow no person to be taken as a pawn for debt. (This last passage was repeated with considerable emphasis.) The Queen desires to make you as happy as her own people. This buying, selling, and pawning of men and women and children is wrong, and no country where it exists can be happy. The Queen does not desire to take any of your people from you; those of them who like to work for and with and to assist you can remain with you. If they are happy and continue to live with you on the same terms as now, no change will be forced upon you; but any person who does not desire to live with you on those terms can leave, and will not be compelled by any court, British or native, to return to you. The Queen hopes to make you happy in many ways, as happy as those in her other dominions. It is right that I should tell you distinctly that if you desire her protection you must do as she wishes, as she orders. This is the Queen's Message. When the Queen speaks in this way it is not a matter for palaver, question, hesitation, or doubt, but she expects obedience and assent. I will only say that without the Queen's money and troops you would have been slaves of a bloodthirsty people. The Queen has paid a great price for your freedom. You and those near and dear to you would have been dragged hence to form a portion of the thousands who are decapitated and sacrificed by this savage

race for their customs; your homes would have been homes full of misery. I see you to-day enjoying peace, and I call on you all to join with me in the prayer 'God save the Queen.' My message is delivered."

When the Governor ceased speaking the chiefs consulted among themselves for a short time what answer to give. At last King Edoo of Mankessim solicited permission from his Excellency to retire till the next day, so that they might hold consultation together on the matter. This, however, the governor refused, and referred them to that portion of his message in which he had stated that when the Queen expressed her wishes it remained only for them to obey, but if they wished it he would retire for a short time and leave them to their deliberations. His Excellency then left the Palaver Hall, and upon his return, in about one hour, the kings and chiefs informed him that they were willing to cease from buying or selling slaves, but raised objection to the slaves being permitted to go free if they chose, without there being any cause shown, and likewise to pawns not being allowed. After some discussion it was decided that no slave could leave his or her master or mistress unless there was proof of cruelty or maltreatment, when such slave would be entitled to his or her freedom. The question of pawns was settled by the debtor being held liable for the amount that the pawn had been given as security for, the amount being recoverable on the pawn leaving. This concluded the meeting in the Castle, but his Excellency invited all the kings and chiefs to go over to Government House to drink long life to Her Majesty.

The subject of Africa cannot be dismissed without reference being made to the death of the great explorer, David Livingstone, the news of which reached England early in the year, about eight months after its actual occurrence. On the 18th of April his remains, which had been conveyed to the coast through many difficulties, by his faithful native followers, and thence transported to England, were deposited with distinguished honours in Westminster Abbey. We refer our readers to the chronicle and obituary for a further account of this eminent and heroic man, and of the tribute of deep reverence paid to him by the nation whose annals he adorned.

In the Queen's Prorogation Speech in August, it was said:—"Negotiations have been undertaken for the renewal of the Reciprocity Treaty formerly in force between the Dominion of Canada and the United States of America. These negotiations, commenced at the desire, and in the interest, of the Dominion, have been temporarily suspended by the adjournment of the American Senate. They will be revived at an early date, and it is my hope that they may lead to an increase of commercial intercourse between my Colonial subjects and the citizens of the United States." These anticipations, however, proved to be more sanguine than events warranted.

The origin and progress of the negotiation was as follows:—

The Canadian Government some time since instructed Mr. George Brown, a Senator of the Dominion, to proceed to Washington for the purpose of ascertaining whether the principal statesmen of the United States were disposed to enter into a new Commercial Treaty. The immediate object of the inquiry was to find a substitute for the mode of settlement of the Fishery claims which had been provided in the Treaty of Washington. By the terms of that instrument, the money payment to be made by the American Government was to be settled by arbitration; and the Canadian Government foresaw that this would neither content their own people nor the Americans. They consequently wished to merge the question of compensation for the fisheries in a more comprehensive arrangement, and at the same time to renew the facilities of intercourse which were abruptly terminated when the United States denounced the Reciprocity Treaty in 1866. The policy of the Canadian Government was prudent and sagacious, and the agent whom they had employed returned to Ottawa with encouraging assurances. The Ministers then proceeded to request the Imperial Government, through the Governor-General, to authorise the English Minister at Washington to enter into negotiations for a Treaty with the Government of the United States. Lord Carnarvon and Lord Derby assented, as a matter of course, to the proposal, and Mr. Brown was associated as plenipotentiary with Sir Edward Thornton. The Commissioners began by drawing up for presentation to Mr. Fish, the American Foreign Minister, a Memorandum on the commercial relations, present and past, of the British North American provinces with the United States.

Mr. Fish intimated his own consent; but, by a rather unusual move, referred the Convention to the Senate as a preliminary to further action; and it is confidently believed that it will not receive the ratification of that body during the present session. Possibly the assurance lately given by Lord Derby and Lord Carnarvon to a deputation, that the Royal assent should not be given to any Canadian Bill by which differential duties might be imposed on English produce, may have disinclined the United States Government to proceed further with the project of the Treaty.

The objects of the proposed Treaty were to admit certain Canadian products at reduced rates of duty into the United States, in consideration of corresponding reductions on American importations into Canada. The Secretary of the National Board of Trade of the United States, which corresponds to the English Chamber of Commerce, states in a letter to the *Times* that his Council had suggested to certain Canadian delegates "the adoption of absolute Free-trade between the United States and Canada, and of a tariff common to them both." The Canadians replied that, in addition to other objections, the establishment of a Customs Union would be unjust to England. The Americans have no intention of relaxing their tariff in favour of England; and consequently the adoption of the Treaty would involve the institution of differential

duties as between English and Canadian produce. As there is no commercial treaty between England and the United States, such a discrimination, though it might be invidious and injurious to English trade, would not form a legitimate ground of remonstrance. On the other hand, if the Treaty were once signed, the Government of the United States would have no right to inquire into the terms on which English goods might be admitted into Canada; yet the imposition of equal duties would almost render nugatory the commercial policy of the United States. Experience has confirmed the probable anticipation that it would be impossible to prevent contraband trade on a frontier which extends over the whole breadth of the Continent. The Canadians have it in their power to increase the cost of English goods to themselves and to their inland customers, because it is practicable to levy at the ports all dues which may be legally imposed; but no vigilance will prevent the smuggler from underselling the regular American trader if goods on the North of the border are subject to lower duties than on the South. It is therefore indispensable for the purposes of the American Government that relaxations of the tariff on imports from Canada should be accompanied by the maintenance of the existing Canadian duties on English goods. As it could scarcely be expected that such a stipulation in a treaty would be accepted by the English Government, the President and his advisers might perhaps be content with a private understanding between themselves and the Canadian Ministers. Unless some kind of security is afforded for the maintenance or establishment of distinctive duties, the American Government, as long as it adheres to a policy of Protection, can have no motive for agreeing to the Reciprocity Treaty.

In a letter from Mr. Disraeli to Sir Henry Rawlinson, in the month of November, it was announced that the Government had consented to organise a new expedition to the Arctic Regions. The news was received with very general satisfaction. The late Ministers had persistently refused to entertain the project; but in face of the energy displayed both by the American and Austrian Governments, it began to be felt as some matter of self-reproach that England, so long and intimately associated with North Pole explorations, should stand in the back ground. The officer chosen to conduct the expedition was Captain George S. Nares, of the 'Challenger,' who was sent for, accordingly, to return from Hong Kong, where his vessel was stationed at the time. About 120 officers and men are to form his new crew, with Commander Markham as second in command; and two vessels, the 'Pandora' and the 'Columbine' have been selected for the expedition.

FOREIGN HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

FRANCE.

Law on Nomination of Mayors—Clerical movements—Speech of the Duc Decazes—Circular on Mayors' appointments—Bonapartists and their journals—M. Ollivier and the Academy—Bonapartists at Chiselhurst, March 16—Prince Imperial's Speech—Electoral Law and Municipal Councils Bill—Interpellation by the Left—M. Thiers' Speech on Fortification Bill—M. Dahrel's motion—Departmental elections—Reprimands to journals—Letter of M. Lucien Brun—Defeat and resignation of the De Broglie Cabinet, May 16—General Cissey Minister—Election of M. de Bourgoing—Gambetta's speech at Auxerre—Debates on Constitutional Bills—Ledru Rollin—Bonapartists and Radicals—Motion of M. Casimir Périer and of the Duc de la Rochefoucauld-Bisaccia—The "Septennate"—Marshal MacMahon's Order of the Day—Manifesto of the Comte de Chambord—Interpellation by M. Lucien Brun—President's Message—Report of Committee of Thirty—Périer's project—Ventavon project—Financial measures—Ministerial changes—Defeat of Périer proposition—Motion of the Left for Dissolution, and of the Right for Adjournment—Speech of Gambetta, July 31—Adjournment of the Assembly—Deaths of MM. Beulé, de Goulard, Jules Michelet, and Jules Jannin.

THE Assembly had dispersed for its short Christmas holiday with a rock visibly ahead. Against that rock the Government vessel was rudely shaken on the first day of the resumed Session. It was on January 8 that the debate came on concerning the newly-proposed law for the nomination of Mayors. The measure, it will be remembered, was one of extreme centralisation, though it purported to be a provisional arrangement only, till such time as organic Constitutional Laws could be voted by the Assembly. In its tendency to throw power into the hands of the existing Government, it pleased neither of the rival parties in the State. The Extreme Right joined the Left in Opposition. The Marquis de Franchieu, a staunch Legitimist and a consistent advocate of decentralisation, stood forth as their spokesman, and moved a resolution to the effect that the discussion of this measure should be postponed till the final or organic Municipal law should be presented for consideration. Was the country, he asked, in any immediate danger? Was the prospect so gloomy that Ministers should take upon them to set aside recognised and approved principles of local self-government? Would not such a power as Government now laid claim to be a terrible thing should

a Revolutionary faction ever get the headship of affairs? And at every election, he added—while satirical laughter arose from the Left benches—the revolutionary flood might be seen to be rising; no ministerial organisation of the municipalities would suffice to keep it down. M. Picard, of the Left, attacked the proposed measure on the ground that it was more of an Electoral than of a Municipal Bill. Why, he asked, could not the Bill of April, 1871, be allowed still to work, the country being at peace, until the Constitutional discussions which must come on after the presentation of the Decentralisation Committee's report?

The Duc de Broglie, evidently disconcerted by the attack from the Right, however he might have been prepared for the antagonism of the Radical party, said in reply to the objectors, that to await the solution of the Decentralisation Committee was senseless. That Committee, after sitting for eighteen months, had intimated its intention of presenting a Bill which after all it would not undertake to recommend for the Assembly's adoption. It was a mere party move to ask for the adjournment of a measure which Government now declared to be absolutely necessary for the effective performance of its functions. Then occurred one of those rough scenes for which the Versailles Assembly has been so discreditably notorious. The voting was interrupted; some demanding that the discussion should be postponed till more members were present; some clamouring for a Secret Ballot. Finally the ballot was instituted: and in spite of vigorous efforts on the part of Government, its result was a majority of forty-two, in a House of 494 members, in favour of postponement. This was equivalent to a vital defeat of the Ministers. They felt it as such; and at once tendered their resignation to the President of the Republic. But Marshal MacMahon answered by a request that they would hold on at all events until the situation had somewhat cleared itself. The crisis was a surprise; it might be that the Assembly was not prepared to trust itself to other guidance, however factiously disposed to give its present leaders a check. And so in fact it proved. Frightened by the possible results of their own temerity, the Opposition sections of the Right in their party bureaux came to an unanimous resolution to recommend a Vote of Confidence in the existing Government. When this Vote was brought before the House on January 12, nearly six hundred members rallied to the important division which was impending. The Vote was proposed by M. de Kerdrel. "If it be undignified," he said, "to cling to power, it is imprudent to be checked by the first obstacle which presents itself. This noble burden is borne, not for the sake of those who bear it, but for the benefit of the country. The Ministry has been too susceptible. Let them cast their eyes now upon the benches of the Right, and compare the aspect of to-day with that of Thursday last. They will perceive that they had a majority against them, but it was not a majority of the Assembly, and they ought not to retire on account of that obscure operation which is

known as a Secret Ballot. I urge the Cabinet to give a reply which shall satisfy the Assembly and reassure the country." M. Picard, on the other side, demanded an explanation from the Ministers of the real principles on which they were conducting the Government of France. It was only by declaring the Republic unequivocally to be its Constitutional form, that the public mind could be relieved from its present pernicious uncertainty. He believed electoral tactics to be the motive of all the municipal changes made and contemplated; and for himself he could give no pledge of confidence to the men in power. The Premier's reply was dexterous and evasive. He carefully avoided any such declaration of principles as M. Picard had tried to extract from him; and asked, amid the sympathetic laughter of his hearers, why he should sue for the confidence of those who had never given it him before? The result of the day's voting was that the motion of the Left for the order of the day, "pure and simple," was defeated by a majority of thirty-nine; and the Vote of Confidence subsequently carried by a majority of fifty-eight.

The Mayors' Bill was consequently proceeded with. On the 14th the general discussion was brought to an end, after a speech from M. Pascal Duprat, of the Left, who declared that the real object of the Bill was to favour Monarchical schemes, but that the Monarchy was dead; and that in conspiring to bring about its restoration, the Ministerial party was merely facilitating the return of the Empire. The separate articles were then gone through, and on January 20 the Bill received the final sanction of the Assembly by 367 votes against 324.

The public interest in the measure had languished latterly, and more attention was paid to certain matters arising out of the relations between the Government and the Clerical party. In accordance with the well-known wishes of the German Government, M. de Fourtou, the Minister of Public Instruction, had at Christmas addressed a Circular to the French bishops, remonstrating with them for the language in which their pastoral addresses were couched. His Circular, however, had had but little effect on the prelates themselves; and their allies in the Press became more aggressive than ever, the chief offender being the indomitable *Univers*, of which M. Louis Veuillot was the editor. On January 19 it was announced that the *Univers* was suspended by order of Government, the immediate cause of this step being the publication of a charge by the Bishop of Perigueux, which seemed intended as a reply to the Circular of M. de Fourtou. M. Veuillot took care to disseminate the belief that a special demand for the suppression of his paper had been made by the authorities at Berlin, to which the French Ministry had basely yielded. Assuredly, however direct or indirect the intimation of German wishes on the subject may have been, the practical and necessary subserviency of the French position could not be doubted. The Government of the Emperor William

and his great Minister could never permit that the discontented portion of its subjects should look for aid and sympathy to a kindred party beyond the Rhine. Having in its general Church policy allied itself unequivocally with the opinions of the Italian Government as against the Papacy, it did not scruple to let the Cabinet of Marshal MacMahon know that the course taken by the French Episcopate was dangerous to a good understanding between the two countries. Meanwhile the Government was urged on the side of Italy to make known its real sentiments as regarded the Clerical question in that country; while the Royalist deputy, M. du Temple, threatened an interpellation on the subject from the Ultramontane point of view. Wishing to prevent the interpellation because of the inconvenient split among the Conservative party which it must needs occasion, the Duc Decazes, on the day following the suppression of the *Univers*, made a speech in the Assembly of some importance. It was delivered at a moment when the excitable air of Paris was rife with rumours of serious complications both with the German and Italian Governments, and with the probabilities of a new war as impending: rumours which caused a considerable fall in the quotations on the Bourse. Dealing more especially with the Italian side of the question, the Duc Decazes formally stated that the relations between France and Italy had never been troubled in the slightest degree, and that the numerous reports which had been circulated on the subject were entirely false.

"The Government is desirous," he said, "of watching over the person of the Holy Father with pious respect and filial solicitude, so far as his spiritual authority and dignity are concerned, but it is also desirous of living in friendly relations with the Italian Government." With regard to other countries, the Minister observed that the policy of the Cabinet was essentially pacific. "We wish for peace," he exclaimed, "for we feel that it is necessary to assure the grandeur and the prosperity of France. In order to secure it we will steadily endeavour to dispel all misunderstanding, to anticipate all conflicts, and to withstand the outcries of ill-advised excitement, from whatever source they proceed; and let it not be said that we thereby compromise the honour and dignity of France. The honour and dignity of France can only be compromised by *politiques d'aventure*, who would conduct it to acts of weakness and folly."

These declarations were received with shouts of applause by the Assembly, and they had a marked effect in tranquillising the public mind outside the walls of the Versailles Theatre.

"The Minister of Foreign Affairs," said the *République Française*, in jubilant strain, "spoke as became him of the factitious and noisy agitation got up for some time past by the Ultramontanes. His dry and disdainful language is likely to discourage the agitators from continuing their campaign. It was not too soon to signify to France and to Europe the necessary divorce of the

Government from the Clerical faction. After the Duc Decazes' declaration it will be impossible for the exaggerated Ultramontanes to pretend to drag the Government further than it will or can go."

That stern political censor of his country's shortcomings, M. John Lemoine, however, did not let off the Duke's speech unscathed by his criticism. Writing in the *Débats*, he said: "M. Decazes begins by saying very sensible things, but why add, for the consolation of our poor *amour propre*, that 'France remains great and strong enough to have the right and the duty to be prudent?' Decidedly we shall always be that nation of great vain children which consoles itself for everything with compliments. We dare not face the truth; and even now, after all that has happened, we have not the courage of our humiliation. France is prudent, they tell us, because she is strong! This is simply untrue. It is because she is weak."

The passing of the Mayors' Nomination Bill had put no less than 37,000 places effectively at the disposal of Government; in every commune throughout France the Executive Administration was henceforth to be in the power of the rulers of the State for the time being. The Duc de Broglie did not delay to avail himself of the immense engine committed to his hands. He issued a Circular to the Prefects of the Departments, explaining the new law, and the manner in which its provisions should be executed; the Mayors and *adjoints* already in office were to be retained, unless any doubt should exist as to their disposition to work in conformity with the wishes of Government; where a new selection had to be made, regard was to be paid to the generally Conservative predilections of the nominee; and, above everything, it was necessary that all municipal officers should understand it to be their duty to support the Government of Marshal MacMahon for the seven years' term of his Presidency. This declaration of the "Septennate," as the existing machine of State now began to be called, was the most explicit that had yet been made. It scarcely needed the reaffirmation of MacMahon himself to show the rival parties in the State that a distinct planetary body had formed itself out of the shifting nebulae which they had themselves set adrift in the political heavens. In answering an address from the President of the Tribunal of Commerce, on February 4, the Marshal said: "On November 19 the Assembly entrusted the Government to me for seven years, and my first duty is to secure the execution of that decision. Be under no uneasiness, therefore. During the seven years I shall be able to cause the order of things legally established to be respected by all. We shall, I hope, also see calm restored to the public mind, and confidence revive. Confidence is not to be created by decrees, but my acts will be of a nature to command it."

"Hitherto," remarked an influential member of the Right, speaking of the acts of Government, "we have had to do with the

Septennat théorique; we have now to deal with the *Septennat militant*."

And, in fact, neither of the extreme parties in the State were gratified by this self-assertion of a Middle Form. It angered the Legitimists, who had always considered MacMahon's rule as only a stepping-stone to the restoration of the old Monarchy whenever a favourable moment should again bring the Comte de Chambord to the front; it provoked Gambetta to the announcement of an interpellation in the interests of the Radical faction.

It was soon perceived that the Mayors' Bill was not to be left an idle form by the *gouvernement de combat*, of which De Broglie had the guidance. It was against the Republican party that its working was especially directed. Mayors and *adjoints* of Legitimist, Orleanist, and even Imperialist, tendencies were substituted by wholesale for the officers of Democratic type. Within little more than a fortnight it was reported that in the Department of the Gironde alone 145 changes had been made. But the rival Monarchical parties began to be a little frightened at each other. The Imperialist functionaries in particular were looked upon as a dangerous acquisition by those who considered that their recent conversance with official life made them even more formidable for their skill than for their numbers. The Imperialists were beginning to acquire a confidence and a boldness which their position a few months earlier would certainly not have been held to justify. Although they mustered but a small body in the Assembly—not above forty deputies at this time—the party had all the advantage which familiarity with official life, definite aims, and compact discipline could give it. Moreover it was led by an able chief, M. Rouher, the quondam "*vice-Empeur*." A considerable sensation was produced by the publication, on February 12, of a letter addressed by M. Rouher to the editor of a Bonapartist provincial journal, entitled *L'Ami de l'Ordre*, which had been fined on account of an article obnoxious to Government. M. Rouher, gently reproving the editor for the impolicy of his article, observed that the *Septennat* should be respected because it left the future entirely free. As far as it went, it was favourable to the interests of the Imperialists, who only desired time to reorganise their forces. A day would come when the national will must be appealed to, and there would be only two forms of government between which the nation would have to choose—the Republic and the Empire. That when that day came, the majority of electors would vote for the Empire, there could be no doubt. Meanwhile the institution of the *Septennat* offered a truce which it was desirable to accept and utilise.

The uneasiness which this manifesto caused to those who supported the present Government on other than Imperialist grounds was at once evident. The Royalists, who had pleased themselves with considering the Bonapartists as subservient allies, felt that their tool was outgrowing their power of wielding it;

the moderate Republicans shrank at the notion that the provisional arrangement to which they had given their adherence might be but a stepping-stone to a Third Empire. The Government itself hesitated whether or not to prosecute those journals which had ventured to publish the letter of M. Rouher. It found, however, a more convenient occasion of noticing the present attitude of the Imperialist party, on the publication of a circular professing to issue from a committee sitting in Paris, the purport of which was to invite persons to repair to Chiselhurst and pay their homage to the Prince Imperial on March 16, the day when he would have attained his majority. In reply to this document, the Minister of the Interior issued a counter-circular, addressed to the Prefects. The Government, it declared, did not aim at restricting the liberty of French citizens, nor did it object to deference and honour being paid to the Imperial family and the Prince who represented it by those who had filled offices or received favours under the rule of Napoleon III. This had been shown when facilities had been granted under the Presidency of M. Thiers, a year previously, for attendance at the late Emperor's funeral. But the present case was different. "The choice," said the Minister, "for a solemn manifestation of the day on which the Prince Imperial enters his nineteenth year appears to proceed from the thought that the Imperial Constitution fixed that same date for the attainment of the Sovereign's majority. We perceive in this an indirect acknowledgment of the right of the Prince Imperial to reign over France in virtue of that Constitution, setting aside the contrary decision adopted by the National Assembly. It is true that the Circular Letter published by the papers abstains from any comment of this kind, but public opinion will always be disposed to believe that its most natural interpretation is also the true one. Being deputed to execute the will of the National Assembly, the Government cannot allow any manifestation which might derogate from the respect due to all its decrees. You will, therefore, vigilantly observe what effect may be given to the invitation published by the newspapers. If in the efforts made to increase the number of visitors to England you discover the least attempt to question the validity of the sovereign decisions of the Assembly, you will instantly inform me of it, in order that I may immediately deal with the offence. No canvassing for visitors to England must be allowed, no discussion which might provoke disorder in the present state of the country. Marshal MacMahon has promised France repose, and we should all so act that he may be able to keep his word. Finally, you will inform me if you learn that any functionaries whatever purpose taking part in the manifestation in question, and you will request them to relinquish an intention which the Government could not allow them to carry out."

From another quarter testimony was given of the lessening obloquy attaching to the memory of the "Man of Sedan," or

rather of the increased courage of those who had formerly shared his counsels and partaken of his reverses. M. Ollivier had been elected a member of the French Academy shortly after he had become a Minister of the late Emperor. When the convulsions of France took place he left the country, never having had an opportunity of applying for his formal reception. Early this year it was reported that the notorious Premier of the "light heart" intended to come to Paris and claim his seat among the "Immortals." He presented himself, in effect, on February 26, before the committee of that august assembly, which, according to custom, was to hear in advance the two speeches to be made on the reception of a new member, i.e., the eulogium by the new member of his defunct predecessor, and the reply of the President of the Academy for the time being. M. Ollivier's predecessor had been M. de Lamartine. In speaking of the statesman-poet, M. Ollivier mostly addressed himself to his literary character, but he ventured also on the hazardous ground of politics; and these were his words: "On more than one occasion Lamartine showed himself just towards the Sovereign whose accession he had opposed. He had not contributed to the apotheosis of Napoleon, although he had called that epic genius the greatest of God's creations. He had mistaken the character of the Napoleonic work, the National Dictatorship, which had saved the Revolution from excess and reaction, which had imposed order on a democracy frantic for anarchy and equality, on an aristocracy frantic for privilege. It seemed to him a patching-up of the glory of past centuries. Inaccessible, nevertheless, to voluntary delusions, he had not pursued with his prejudices the Prince who inherited the name and power of Napoleon. More than once he considered his acts faulty, without, however, allowing himself to be seduced into misjudging the general worth of that devoted personage. After a conversation followed by many others, Lamartine writes in his political memoirs: 'I recognised him (Napoleon III.) as the strongest and most serious statesman, without any exception, of all those whom I had known in my long life as statesmen.' If he (Lamartine) had known him better, if he had had experience of his great heart, of the charm and justness of his mind, of the gentleness of his character; if he had become the confidant of his thoughts solely directed to the public good and to the relief of those who suffer; if he had been witness to the loyalty with which he put in practice the freest institutions our country had yet known; if he had beheld him modest in prosperity and august after misfortune, he would have done more than render him justice, he would have loved him."

On the Committee of the Academy happened to be M. Guizot. When M. Ollivier had finished, the old man came forward to object to the eulogium on the late Emperor, and urged the omission of the passage. M. Ollivier refused to suppress it. A warm altercation ensued. "Monsieur," said Guizot, with taunting bit-

terness, "*on peut avoir le cœur léger ; mais à l'Académie il n'est pas permis d'avoir l'esprit léger!*" M. Ollivier interrupted him. "Is it your intention, Sir," he said, "to attack me personally? If so, abandon circumlocution and speak to me face to face." M. Guizot declared it inopportune and inadmissible to eulogise the author of the war of 1870. There was no question of the war, M. Ollivier replied. He had not even alluded to it. When the time came to explain his personal part in those events he should be prepared to do so. All that he had said in his speech with respect to the Emperor referred to him personally, and not to his acts. He was his Minister when he was elected to the Academy, and he considered that to take possession of his seat without finding a word of affectionate remembrance for the Sovereign whom he had served and loved to the last would be an act of cowardice. He denied that any one had the right *de lui imposer une telle infamie*. His tone was indignant and vehement. M. Guizot then said it was intolerable that M. Ollivier should not recognise in his speech that the Emperor had committed many errors. "No, I will not say it," replied M. Ollivier; "*je me trouve en présence d'un outrage général, je veux lui opposer un éloge général.*"

The speech escaped direct condemnation by the Committee; but when the Academy came to a vote on the subject it was decided that the formal induction of its author to the vacant *fauteuil* should be indefinitely postponed. For the present he had to console himself with a letter from the ex-Empress, thanking him for the terms in which he had had the courage to speak of Napoleon III.

In spite of the warning circular of the Prime Minister, the pilgrimage to Chiselhurst on March 16 was numerously attended. Men of every station and office, of every character and faculty, were among its constituents: former Ministers and diplomatists; prefects, financiers, men of commerce; altogether, the "following" was such as to show that if the Empire should ever come back, it would have a phalanx unusually strong in official experience to guide and protect its fortunes. One prominent Napoleonist only was conspicuous by his absence, and that was Prince Napoleon Jérôme himself, the nearest scion of the house, who took care at this time to separate his line of action from that of the ex-Empress and her son. M. Rouher and the Duc de Padua, a member of the Corsican family of Arrighi, and a trusted agent of the late Emperor, stood foremost among the visitors from Paris. The Duc de Padua read the address. The Prince's reply was as follows:—

"M. le Duc and Gentlemen: In assembling here to-day you have obeyed a sentiment of fidelity towards the memory of the Emperor; and it is for this I would first of all offer you my thanks. The public conscience has avenged that great memory of the calumnies heaped upon it, and now beholds the Emperor under

his true aspect. You who come from the divers regions of our country can bear witness to this. His reign was throughout a constant solicitude for the good of all; his last day on the territory of France was a day of heroism and abnegation. Your presence around me, the numerous addresses which reach me, attest the uneasiness of France as to her future destinies. Order is protected by the sword of the Duc de Magenta, the ancient companion of my father's glories and misfortunes. His loyalty is a sure guarantee for you that he will not leave exposed to party surprises the deposit he has received. But material order is not security. The future remains unknown; interests take fright in contemplating it, passions may abuse it. Hence arises the sentiment, the echo of which you convey to me, that sentiment which drags on opinion with irresistible force towards a direct appeal to the nation, in order to lay the foundation of a definitive Government. The *plébiscite* is safety and is strength; it is real force given back to nominal power, and an era of long security reopened before the country; it is a great national party, without conquerors or conquered, raising itself above all others, in order to recruit them. Will France, freely consulted, cast her eyes on the son of Napoleon III.? This thought awakens in me not so much pride as distrust of my capabilities. The Emperor himself has taught me how heavily sovereign authority weighs even upon the shoulders of mature manhood, and how needful, to accomplish so high a mission, are faith in oneself and the sense of duty. This faith it is which will supply to me what my youth is deficient in. Bound to my mother by the most tender and grateful affection, I will labour unremittingly to anticipate the progress of years. When the hour shall have come, if any other Government shall reunite the suffrages of the greatest number, I will bow respectfully to the decision of the country. But if the name of the Napoleons shall for the eighth time rise from the popular urns, then I stand ready to accept the responsibility which the nation's vote will impose upon me. Such is my thought. I thank you for having travelled far in order to hear me express it. Bear back my remembrance to the absent; bear to France the best wishes of one of her children; my courage and my life belong to her. May God keep watch over her, and restore to her her prosperity and her greatness!"

Here, then, was no abnegation of the possibilities of the future; on the contrary, a clear intimation that, should the voice of his country call him to such high and perilous destinies, the son of Napoleon III. would not be found backward to the appeal. Truly the prompters of the voice at Chiselhurst were not wanting in audacity; had they good ground for counting on the forces at their back? the public asked, with some astonishment.

In Paris the *jour de naissance* passed off quietly. That there were no demonstrations was, some people said, because all the Imperialists had gone across the Channel in a body. A few per-

sons shouted "Vive Napoleon IV.!" but the police occupied the thoroughfares in full force, and pulled down or effaced inflammatory placards.

The force of Bonapartist sentiment at this period might well make the Government pause as to the wisdom of the course it was pursuing in regard to the Constitutional Laws which the Committee of Thirty were now busied in framing. The revision of the electoral law had been for some weeks a chief topic under consideration. On March 21 the report on this law was presented to the Chamber by M. de Batbie. The chief provisions of the new proposed ordinance were these: first, that no Frenchman should be entitled to vote until he should have attained the age of twenty-five instead of twenty-one, as heretofore, inasmuch as no soldier was entitled to vote, and by the existing army law all citizens (with very few exceptions) must belong to the active army or its reserve until that age; secondly, that each voter must have resided three years in the place where he should give his vote, or six months if a native of that place; thirdly, that the voting by departments should be changed for voting by small electoral districts, large towns to return one member for every 100,000 inhabitants. It was calculated that the limitations proposed would diminish the number of the electoral body by about three million voters, a serious infringement on the Bonapartist and Radical principle of universal suffrage. Moreover, the Republicans objected to the clause substituting *arrondissements* for departments as voting boundaries, on the ground that it would be easier to bribe the smaller constituencies, and to restore the old abuse of official candidates. The clause postponing the age of a qualified voter was stigmatised by its opponents as "the ostracism of youth." M. de Broglie, indeed, while accepting the report of the Committee as the basis of a new Electoral Law, intimated that a few special changes might be made in its details; but, as a whole, the scheme was known to be in harmony with the views of the existing Cabinet, and that knowledge did not tend to increase the popularity of Ministers.

And again, the principle of the proposed reform was mixed up with the motives of another measure which the Duc de Broglie found it expedient to bring forward on March 12, in hope of strengthening the position of Government. The delay and embarrassment in the progress of affairs caused by the discussions on petty questions of taxation, which were now taking up the time and attention of the Assembly, led him to fear that before the new Electoral Law should have passed, the powers of the existing Municipal Council—bodies chosen by popular election—terminable on April 30, 1874, would have come to an end, and involve the necessity of new Municipal elections all over the country under the conditions of universal suffrage. Now the changes of Mayors and deputy Mayors made lately by the Government had been in the interest of reactionary Conservatism; and,

when once a restricted suffrage should be the law of the land, it was hoped that, with these Mayors in office, the Election of Councils might also tend in a Conservative direction; but, at the present moment, it was probable that the same men, or men of the same opinions as those who now sat in those Assemblies, would be returned; and the prevailing colour of the Municipal Councils elected in virtue of the law of 1871 for their three years' tenure of office, was undoubtedly Republican. The Bill now brought in by the Duc de Broglie proposed therefore that the existing Councils should retain their functions until the National Assembly should have come to a decision on the organic Municipal Law which was shortly to be laid before it, the ostensible reason given being the certainty of changes when the new law should have been passed, and the undesirableness of unsettling things twice within so short a period.

The Bill was referred to a Committee. But before its Report could be presented, Ministers had to undergo a point-blank attack from the politicians of the Left, in the shape of an interpellation brought forward by MM. Gambetta and Challemel-Lacour, on the subject of the Duc de Broglie's late circular on the nomination of Mayors. The object, as usual, was to extract from the astute pilots of the State some declaration as to the meaning and duration of the *Septennat*, which should alienate from them the sympathies of the Monarchical parties. M. Challemel-Lacour, leading the attack in an eloquent speech of two hours' duration, put these two questions categorically: Will any attempt at a Monarchical Restoration during the next seven years be considered contrary to law? Is any attempt to change the form of Government to be considered an offence?

The thrust was a powerful one; it was parried, not unskillfully, by the Duc de Broglie. With an air of disdainful sarcasm he alluded to the Government to which M. Challemel-Lacour had once belonged—the Dictatorship of Gambetta—when the people of France every morning on opening the *Journal Officiel*, found municipalities suppressed, and the most unexpected and arbitrary decrees promulgated. He refused to give any categorical reply as to the meaning of the Septennate; its duration was fixed by the vote of the Chamber. He was no Dictator; he had only to interpret the laws passed by the Assembly. In displacing Mayors, he had dismissed those who were a public scandal; he had also, no doubt, dismissed those who were notoriously hostile to Government. For the rest, his instructions to them had only been that public order should be preserved. With regard to laws that, as yet, had no existence, he must decline to give any explanation. The majority warmly applauded the Duke's speech; the Left received it ironically. For the moment the difficulty of the Ministerial situation seemed averted; but suddenly a perilous complication ensued, when a fiery Legitimist, M. Cazenove de Pradines, took possession of the tribune. M. de Broglie, he said, might speak for himself.

His own view of the Septennate and its necessary duration was a different one. If once the day came when Henry Cinq should knock at the door, Marshal MacMahon was not one who would keep him waiting! Great uproar ensued on this utterance, and the Duc de Broglie found it necessary to disclaim the sentiments of M. Cazenove de Pradine as representing those of Government. Eventually Ministers succeeded in obtaining a majority of sixty on the question of the Interpellation. But the action of the Legitimist deputy had placed them in some difficulty. On the following day Marshal MacMahon sent for him and for M. Carayon Latour, and said to them: "There are two policies, that of sentiment and that of duty. I have always preferred duty to sentiment, and I have had reason to be satisfied with the result." And, with the view of giving more public expression to his opinions, he wrote a letter to the Duc de Broglie, to be inserted in the *Journal Officiel*, in which he said: "I have to thank you for the statements you made at yesterday's sitting, which are in conformity with those I have made myself to the Presidents of the Chamber and of the Tribunal of Commerce. I know my rights and my duties, and I shall not disappoint the confidence which the National Assembly has placed in me."

The Municipal Councils Bill came on for discussion on March 25. Again there took place an animated contest between the Government and the Radical Opposition; again, after a perilous crisis, victory remained with the Government. The Report of the Committee, which had deliberated for a week on the proposal of M. de Broglie, was presented by M. de Marcère; it distinctly and in detail rejected the measure. M. Anisson-Dupéron then declared that he and his friends of the Conservative minority in the Committee would once more bring forward the Government Bill as an amendment. M. de Pressensé, the Protestant divine, spoke against it. He said he did not know to what sort of municipal carnival they meant to abandon themselves; Government, after having called a social danger into existence, was about to create a Communal danger. He declared himself the sworn enemy of all theories of public safety, from whatever side they came, for they were the starting points of all the despotisms. The proposed law was simply a Ministerial necessity. He reproached the Government with being afraid of public opinion, and said it was in this way that there was established a *pays légal* no longer in harmony with the *pays réel*. The nobler policy was that adopted recently by Mr. Gladstone, the illustrious Minister of a neighbouring country, who was greater after his fall than he had been while in power. He had a majority of sixty votes, but, seeing that when vacancies occurred the new members elected were hostile to him, he resolved to consult the country, and preferred to fall rather than govern in opposition to the popular will. "He had no Republic to deal with," cried a voice from the Right. The speaker continued: The country is tired to death of the equivo-

cations by which it is bound. In its dying throes it cries, like Goethe, for "Light, more light!"

M. Ernest Duvergier de Hauranne spoke on the same side, and predicted that a time would come when the Conservatives, in desperation, would throw themselves into the arms of the Left for protection against the evils they had let loose. M. Depeyre, the Minister of Justice, defended the Government proposal; and when a vote was taken, its policy was affirmed by a considerable majority of the Assembly, 334 votes against 115; nearly half the Chamber abstaining from taking share in the division.

Although for the moment defeated, the Left were not discouraged, and two days afterwards they rushed anew to attack the Ministerial stronghold. The order of the day was a debate on the Paris fortifications, a subject on which M. Thiers himself, the original deviser of the fortifications, had intimated his intention to speak. The voice of the veteran statesman had not been heard within the walls of the Assembly since the memorable May 24, 1873, when he had been driven from power. His enemies had then avowed that he would lose no opportunity of harassing and thwarting the new Government in the Chamber, and, when they saw that he persistently held his peace, had declared that his house was a centre of intrigue and a focus of perpetual conspiracy. M. Thiers, however, paid no heed to these aspersions, and maintained his calm attitude. His anticipated speech on the Fortifications Bill, on March 27, attracted crowds to hear him. But it was for no party purpose that the veteran statesman on this occasion mounted the tribune. His amendment, which was rejected, was merely to the effect that the proposed new works should be limited, for the moment, to those points on the urgency and necessity of which everybody should be agreed; other points to be reserved for subsequent discussion. But a violent party character was again given to the sitting of the Assembly on that day by a motion suddenly introduced by M. Dahirel—like M. Cazenove de Pradine, a thorough-going Legitimist—proposing that on June 1, 1874, the National Assembly should pronounce definitely the form of Government. In claiming "urgency" for his motion, the speaker complained that the country had entrusted the Deputies three years ago with the duty of establishing a definite form of Government; and that, nevertheless, a provisional state of affairs, highly injurious to the interests of France, was still maintained. On behalf of the Moderate Right, M. Kerdrel protested that such a vote would not be loyal towards the President of the Republic. He contended that the Assembly had no right to shorten the duration of the Septennate; but, he added, the Marshal might shorten it himself if he chose, by laying down the power confided to him. This was an unfortunate observation, and it neutralised the useful effect of M. de Kerdrel's speech, causing no small agitation among the excitable factions. M. de Broglie had to interfere. No one, he said, had a right to speak in the

name of the President of the Republic; he must request that Marshal MacMahon's name should not be introduced into the discussion. On the division, a majority of seventy-four voted against M. Dahirel's motion, and thus Government, and its delicate plant the Septennate, were again saved. But it had been a narrow escape for Ministers; and the unexpected way in which the members of the different political parties had voted on the occasion showed how precarious was the nature of the support to be looked for; how various were the aspects in which the present "settlement" was regarded.

On the following day the Assembly separated for its Easter recess. Among the many warnings it had received of its precarious existence was a resolution laid on the table five days previously by the members of the Extreme Left, stating that since July 1870, and after the change of Government on May 24, the elections had given evidence of the increasing intensity of Republican sentiments in the country; that during this period 170 elections had been held in sixty-seven departments, constituting three-fourths of France. "These manifestations," it was said, "do not justify certain political parties in attacking universal suffrage. On the contrary, they serve to remind the Assembly of the law of all free countries, and are an appeal to it to make way for general elections in order to put an end to the disunion existing between the House and the country, and to the disquietude which results therefrom. Universal suffrage is a peaceful and legal instrument of the national sovereignty; it forms the basis of French public law, and is the only guarantee of order and stability." The resolution contained three clauses:—Clause 1, that general elections shall be ordered for June 28; clause 2, that these elections shall be carried out according to the provisions of the present electoral law; clause 3, that the present Assembly shall cease to exist on July 15.

Four departmental elections had, in fact, taken place since the beginning of the current year, followed by two more on March 29, the result of which had been almost entirely discouraging for the party represented by the existing Government. A candidate—half Bonapartist, half MacMahonist—had been returned for the Pas de Calais; but in all the other instances the Radical candidate had been successful, and next to the Radical candidate had stood the Imperialist in the number of votes recorded. It was very manifest that these two classes of politicians divided the real sympathies of the country; and not only so, but that their political skill and organisation gave them an advantage over the vacillating ranks of the Government supporters. As for the Royalists, whether of the Chambord or Orleans type, their credit stood at present very low in the country. Their abortive attempt to restore the Monarchy in the previous year, and the general conviction that the Monarchy, if restored, could only be upheld by Ultramontane influences, that clerical domination over political

and social life must in the last resort be a condition of its existence, indisposed the general intelligence of the country for its acceptance. Not the less were the politicians of the Extreme Right in the Assembly bent upon making good their position at the present moment, as against the distinctive organisation of the "Septennate;" and no sooner had the Assembly dispersed for its Easter vacation than articles appeared in various journals from all three sides of opinion, attacking the Government and speaking in the most contemptuous terms of the Marshal-President and his advisers. The Napoleonist and Legitimist organs were especially offensive. In the *Liberté*, M. Emile Ollivier advocated a *plebiscitum* in the interests of Imperialism; in the *Union* it was maintained that the presentation of the so-called Constitutional Bills by the Ministry to the Committee of Thirty had released the Conservative majority from all its engagements to the Cabinet of the Duc de Broglie. Within the Cabinet itself, where both Bonapartism and Legitimism had their representatives, a sharp and critical discussion ensued upon the publication of these articles. Finally, it was decided to address *communiqués*, or official reprimands, to the two gazettes which had inserted them; and these intimations of Government displeasure were followed up by a Circular which the Minister of Justice, M. Depeyre, issued to the *Procureurs-Généraux*, in the following words:—

"Various journals have lately published articles antagonistic to the powers conferred by the National Assembly upon Marshal MacMahon. On November 19 last the National Assembly, acting within the limits of the Constitution, adopted the following resolution: 'The Executive power is entrusted to Marshal MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, for seven years from the promulgation of the present law. This power will be exercised in the name of the President of the Republic, and under existing conditions, as long as the Assembly shall think fit to introduce no modifications.' When the Assembly conferred these powers for seven years upon Marshal MacMahon it intended that they should be placed beyond dispute, and that both itself and the country should be bound by the resolution which it had arrived at—a resolution which may be regarded as irrevocable, as the Assembly formally refused to make it subordinate to clauses which would have left it uncertain until a vote had been taken on the Constitutional Laws. These laws will shortly be submitted to the examination of the National Assembly; but whatever the result may be, the power conferred on the Marshal cannot be contested. It has become irrevocable by the vote for prolonging his powers; and these powers, both in their duration for seven years and in the person of their representative, cannot be attacked with impunity. Such attacks constitute, in fact, a violation of the law. They have also the effect of causing public excitement, of interfering with business, and diminishing that security which the law of November 19 was intended to confer upon the country. I,

therefore, request you to forward to me any articles published within your jurisdiction which appear to come within Article 1 of the law of July 28, 1849."

It was observable that the Circular itself, in spite of its authoritative language, did not step beyond the limits of convenient ambiguity as to the ultimate principles into which the Septennate might under pressure of circumstances be resolved. So at least the members of the Extreme Right chose to assert; and their interpretation of its import was conveyed in a significant letter addressed by M. Lucien Brun to the *Union*. M. Brun declared that when the Circular threatened prosecution against any newspapers which should attack Marshal MacMahon's powers, it could refer only to such as should refuse to acknowledge that the Executive Power had been irrevocably confided to him for seven years. But thus no member of the Right would dream of contesting. Under one name or another, the Marshal could, if he chose, remain the ruler of France for the term specified. But it was never meant that the Assembly should be hindered from pronouncing whether the country thus ruled by Marshal MacMahon were in its ultimate principles a Monarchy or a Republic; and for the tranquillity of France it was most desirable that this point should be cleared up with the least possible delay. In other words, the position and requirements of the Extreme Right might be thus expressed: "We cannot compel the Marshal to resign his powers before seven years; but we may proclaim the Monarchy, give him the title of Lieutenant-General of the Kingdom, instead of the one he now is improperly known by of President of the Republic, and place in his honest hands for seven years the trust and guard of restored Royalty."

The Assembly met again on May 12. In view of the exceeding delicacy of the situation, it was judged advisable that no Presidential Message should be delivered; so easily might a single preposition or adjective wrongly placed unite Right and Left against the existing Ministry, and force it out of the convenient vagueness on which its life depended. On May 15 the Duc de Broglie presented his Bill for the creation of a Second Chamber and the regulation of the relations between the powers of the State, leaving aside (as he expressly stated) the question of determining one form of government or another, and treating the present state of things as a party truce. The Bill provided that the Upper Chamber should be called the "Grand Council," and should be composed of three categories—namely, members elected by the departmental bodies, members in their own right, and members appointed by the Executive Power: the latter to be irremovable. The members of the Grand Council should receive no salary. The Bill proposed to confer upon the Executive Power, conjointly with the Grand Council, the right of dissolving the Chamber of Representatives, and to permit a delay of six months between the dissolution of the old and the election of a new one.

When Marshal MacMahon's term should expire the two Chambers of the legislature should constitute a Congress, at which joint resolutions should be adopted. The president of the Grand Council should exercise executive power provisionally in all cases where the post of head of the Executive should become vacant. After the reading of this Bill the Assembly decided to refer it to the Committee of Thirty.

The storm did not burst that day. The Assembly adjourned. The Cabinet and the Right attempted negotiations; but the following sitting of the House on May 16 brought things to an issue. M. Batbie, Reporter of the Committee of Thirty, called upon the Assembly to place the new Electoral Law on the Order of the Day for the following Wednesday. His proposition was rejected by the Extreme Right, who, for obvious reasons, demanded that the organic Municipal Law should be the first of the new Constitutional Bills to be discussed. The Prime Minister, in accordance with his intention previously expressed, took part with the Committee of Thirty, and in a brief but straightforward declaration formally imparted to the coming division the character of a Vote of Confidence.

Resolute himself, he said, to defer no longer the organisation of France, he desired to obtain from the Assembly a definition of the electoral body to whom should be confided the duty of choosing that Supreme Chamber which should take the place of the present. This was his determination; and he was, indeed, so committed to this course by former acts and speeches that he could not have postponed it again if he had wished. But three divisions, or rather four, of the Assembly were as firmly resolved that this course should not be pursued. The unwavering members of the Left would consent to nothing which involved any recognition of constituent authority in the present Chamber; and of the rest, one half, including M. Thiers, would not accept the invitation of the Duc de Broglie, because they disapproved the wholesale disfranchisement of existing voters which he desired to bring about. These might be counted as two opposing divisions, and the Extreme Right and the Bonapartists were the other two. The Imperialists rested their hopes on the fidelity of the rural democracy, and they could not favour designs to deprive the multitude of the privilege of the vote. The Extreme Right were convinced that the Duc de Broglie's policy necessarily led to the establishment of a Republic—a Republic which might indeed be aristocratic and Conservative, but which must render for ever impossible the restoration of the Monarchy. Legitimists, Bonapartists, the Extreme Left, and half the Left Centre being thus united in opposition to the Duc de Broglie's Constitutional proposals, the Ministry had to learn their fate from an Assembly at which 700 deputies were present. When votes were taken, a majority of sixty-four pronounced against the proposition of the Government; this hostile majority being composed of the different sections of

the Left, with the exception of a very few deputies of the Left Centre, of eighteen Bonapartists (almost the whole of that small group), and of more than fifty Legitimists.

Immediately after the rising of the Assembly, the Ministers repaired to the apartments of Marshal MacMahon and gave in their resignation, consenting only to retain their portfolios until such time as their successors should be appointed. This was no easy task to arrange. The President sent first for M. Buffet; but that statesman declined undertaking the responsibility of power under existing conditions. Then the Duc d'Audiffret Pasquier was appealed to. He too excused himself, on the ground that his policy was the same as M. de Broglie's, of whose course of action he had entirely approved. Thirdly, the President turned to M. de Goulard, who set himself in good faith to form a Cabinet, based on the adhesion of a few more Liberals in the Assembly. MacMahon persuaded the Duc Decazes to help him by retaining office, and some hopes were entertained of a patchwork settlement, when that attempt too broke down, and then, after the crisis had lasted nearly ten days, the Marshal resolved to take the negotiations into his own hands, and summoned General de Cissey, late Minister of War under Thiers, who obeyed his chief's commands, said a contemporary writer, as simply as if he had been ordered to head a Division in battle. Placing this non-political soldier at the head of the Cabinet, with the title of Vice-President, and keeping the Duc Decazes, M. Magne, and M. Fourtou still in office, the helmsman of the ship of State managed to steer it once more on the perilous waters of the Septennate.

Thus had fallen the Ministry of the Duc de Broglie. Its leader could scarcely have failed to remember the words addressed to him by M. Thiers on May 24 of the previous year. "You have gained the day," said the defeated President; "You are in power for one year." That one year of the Broglie rule forms a distinct episode in French political history. It was devoted to two experiments, each conspicuous by its failure. The first six months ended with the collapse of the scheme for a Bourbon restoration; the second six months ended with the defeat of a scheme for a reconstruction of the Constitution, in the interests, it was generally believed, of a possible Orleanism in the future. For, in the new organic institutions which it was proposed to establish, and which were so eminently displeasing to the politicians of the Left, the Duke aimed at giving force to the reactionary elements in the country, though he dared not openly favour any form of Monarchism, least of all that advocated by the Legitimists of the Extreme Right. The Legitimists, bigoted and impatient of compromise, seeing that whatever the Minister might effect towards strengthening the position of the clergy and the great proprietors, still the forms of a Republic were about to be continued and ratified, in view of the Republican temper manifested by the country at large, resolved not to commit themselves to any measure involving the ex-

clusion of the phantom Sovereign by Divine Right. It is difficult to see what good they could have proposed to themselves at the present moment by overthrowing a Ministry so essentially conservative as that of the Duc de Broglie. Their vote seemed rather the act of foolhardy politicians who thought that, by hopelessly embarrassing the position of Marshal MacMahon, they might drive him to a *coup d'état*, and did not stay to reflect as to what type of "Restoration" he might be likely to bring in.

And assuredly if MacMahon had been driven to play the part of General Monk at this moment, it seemed more likely he would have re-seated a Bonaparte than a Bourbon. And the country could have borne it better. Imperialism continued perceptibly to gain ground in the Provinces. No small triumph attended its promoters when, towards the end of May, M. de Bourgoing, late Equerry to the Emperor, was returned as Deputy for the Department of the Nièvre. The struggle had been between the Bonapartist candidate and the Republican; and the adherent of Napoleon IV. had won by a majority of more than 5,000 votes. The Republicans were greatly disappointed; the Bonapartists, who had not expected victory, were proportionally exultant. It was in fact a very momentous event. The *Journal des Débats* expressed the alarm of the Moderates: "Have we escaped from Democracy to fall into Cæsarism?" it asked. M. Gambetta, in a speech delivered on occasion of a *fête* at Auxerre, warned his auditors against the dangers involved in the growing audacity of the Imperialist party. He observed the most studied moderation as to the supposed subversive views of which he was popularly credited as the champion, while he explained away the *couches sociales* of his former manifesto as a harmless figure of rhetoric. "Property," he said, "is independence, and independence is Democracy, and thus are formed new social strata (*couches sociales*), which demand the Republic as the necessary Government of the country, as more appropriate to their interests and to their dignity. The faults, the negligence, the incapacity of the Empire, brought about its ruin, in spite of all the warnings of patriots and Liberals. . . . To-day the Republican Democracy finds itself in presence of the pseudo-Democracy—the Cæsarism Democracy. The struggle is expected—the duel is inevitable." He indulged in animated invective against the national *plébiscite* advocated by the Bonapartists. "An appeal to the people," he said, "is the abdication of the people. I say this aloud, in the presence of listening Europe. The conscience of France protests against this filthy fraud of a *plébiscitum*, which the Bonapartists hide to-day under the name of an appeal to the people."

On the Order of the Day for the first days of June, stood (1) the Municipal Electoral Bill; (2) the Organic Municipal Bill; (3) the Political Electoral Bill. On each of these subjects there were stormy discussions. The chief "incident" of the sitting of June 3 was a speech from the veteran Democrat of 1848, M.

Ledru Rollin, who had been returned as a member of the Assembly in one of the late departmental elections. An unusually large audience crowded to hear him. He had been irresistible as a tribune of the people in former days; but it was observed that now his voice had become hollow, his language sluggish, and that his gestures had lost their ancient fire and dignity. He spoke in favour of universal suffrage and against the provisions of the new Electoral Law, which aimed at curtailing that privilege of the French people. More effective was a speech made on the same side the following day by M. Louis Blanc, another of the heroes of 1848. "The presentation," he said, "by the Ministers of Louis Bonaparte of the Law of May 31 was a snare laid for the people. There were two snares. The Assembly fell into the first, the people into the second, and the Empire was established. By the respect I have for my country, I swear that it shall not be again established. No; it will not rise again—that dead body, dead of all the evil it has caused to France! But the party it has left behind still exists, and if it lacks power to reconquer the country, it has unfortunately power to disturb it. It is for you, gentlemen, to reflect whether it would be wise to leave that party such a war-cry as Universal Suffrage, and such a banner as the sovereignty of the people."

The uneasiness caused by the Imperialist triumph in the Nièvre moved the politicians of the two Centres, Right and Left, to issue "programmes" explaining their views of the present situation and what line of action was required. The Left Centre put forth a definite demand that the work interrupted by the overthrow of M. Thiers should be resumed, and the Assembly should declare France, in definite terms, to be a Republic. In the event of the Assembly being unable or unwilling to come to this decision, the Left Centre pronounced itself resolved to support a dissolution. The Right Centre sounded a more evasive note. "The programme of the Right Centre (said the *Temps*) may be summed up in these three words—'truce of parties'; while the Left Centre demands that the form of government be settled at once. The Right Centre desires to put off any definitive arrangement till 1880. The Left Centre wishes to quiet the labouring classes and to close the door to the Empire; the Right Centre insists upon keeping the door open, lest by closing it on the Empire it should be equally shut against the Monarchy." The two Central parties were not brought nearer together by their several utterances; for the moment, at all events, the gulf seemed to be widened, instead of narrowed, between the friends of Constitutional Monarchy and the modern Girondins, who believed in a Conservative Republic; and between the Bonapartists and the Radicals the animosity became daily more and more bitter. It was increased by an incident which occurred in the Assembly on June 9. On that day, M. Girard, a Radical deputy of the department in which the Bonapartist victory had been gained, called the attention of the

Assembly to a Circular which had been sent to the agents of that party from a so-termed "Central Committee of the Appeal to the People," calling on all the friends of Imperialism in the Nièvre, and especially those holding Municipal or Government places, to do their utmost to secure the good services of the resident officers on half-pay, and others, for M. Bourgoing's canvass, intimating that their grievances, if they had any, should be redressed, and provision made for them under the new Army Regulations; and referring to the Ministries of War and of Finance as guaranties.

The reading of this document caused immense excitement. M. Rouher advanced to the tribune, and said that he had no knowledge of such a body as the "Committee of Appeal to the People;" he could not say whether the circular was apocryphal or authentic, but he and his friends knew nothing about it, nor did M. Bourgoing. He suggested that it had been fabricated by the enemies of the Empire to bring discredit on the cause, and asked for an inquiry, intimating that probably the composition would be brought home to the Left itself. M. de Fourtou disclaimed all complicity on the part of the Government. M. Gambetta then addressed the Assembly. He complained of M. de Fourtou's assurance as evasive, spoke bitterly of the tendency of the Minister of Finance, M. Magne, to people the administration with Bonapartists, and declared that the importance of the document consisted in the guilty complicity which it revealed between certain agents of the State and the political party in question. The whole Cabinet, he continued, must free itself from responsibility for that "detested faction." General de Cissey, one of the inculpatated Ministers, rose to confute the circular, as far as regarded the Ministry of War, but at his explanations the Left laughed distrustfully. Then M. Gambetta spoke again, with more excitement than before; he had been irritated by some personal remarks of M. Rouher, and to these he replied: "There are some here whose right I do not recognise to call the revolution of September 4 to account—*ce sont les misérables qui ont perdu la France*." The use of one of the most outrageous epithets in the French vocabulary threw the Assembly into violent confusion. The Radical leader was called to order, but instead of withdrawing his expression he maintained and emphasised it, while his party vehemently applauded, and declared that he spoke in the name of all. The President of the Assembly, unable to stop the uproar, could only allow it to exhaust itself, remarking on the scandalous nature of the scene.

Leaving the Chamber, the Radicals and Bonapartists met in the refreshment room. Here reciprocal insults began again, and a violent collision was with difficulty prevented by the interference of the Moderate deputies. Next day a crowd was waiting at the Paris Station to see the deputies start for Versailles by the usual mid-day train. As Gambetta advanced to take his place, a well-dressed, middle-aged man walked up to him and said, "You said

yesterday that the Bonapartists were wretches. I am a Bonapartist, and if you ever again say——” M. Gambetta, raising his stick, drove the man off as he was preparing to rush at him. An ex-Deputy who was present, seeing that the police were not going to interfere, cried out, “A Representative of the people is being insulted and you stand looking on!” The appeal was fruitless. The crowd became denser round Gambetta and his assailant, when at length a few persons thrust the fellow back, and so allowed Gambetta to reach the platform without further hindrance. The person who made the attack was identified as one Casanova, an adventurer of disreputable antecedents, who had already undergone imprisonment for acts of personal violence. He was arrested, imprisoned, and fined for this outrage.

The recent Programme of the Left Centre bore fruit in a motion introduced on June 15 by M. Casimir-Périer, calling upon the Committee of Thirty to take as the basis of its labours the first article of the Constitutional Law definitively proclaiming the Republic, presented by M. Thiers shortly before his overthrow, and the law of November 1873, conferring the Presidency upon Marshal MacMahon for seven years.

The motion was worded thus: The National Assembly, desiring to put an end to the uncertainties of the country, adopts the following resolution: “The Committee of Constitutional Laws will take for the basis of its labours on the organisation and transmission of public powers the 10th Article of the Bill brought in on May 19, 1873, thus conceived: The Government of the French Republic is composed of Two Chambers and of a President Chief of the Executive Power; 2nd, the Law of November 20, 1873, by which the Presidency of the Republic was conferred on Marshal MacMahon until November 20, 1880; 3rd, Article 3 of the Constitution of 1848, relating to the exercise of a total or partial right of revision of the Constitution” In explaining the grounds on which the motion was based, M. Périer successively alluded to the sufferings of all classes of the community. It was necessary, he said, to put an end to the present uncertainty; a Conservative Republic must be by name acknowledged, and the Committee of Thirty be furnished with a definite basis for their task of preparing Constitutional Laws; for as yet they knew not whether they were drawing up those laws for a Republic or a Monarchy.

He continued: “The country must not be left to face an unknown future. Let us not suffer an audacious party, which no longer makes a secret of its hopes, to attempt again to lay hands on power. Let us be united against Cæsarism and demagoguery. Let us think less of our rivalries and more of the interests of France.” In conclusion, he moved that the Assembly should declare his proposition “urgent.”

Then M. Lambert de Ste. Croix rose, and spoke on behalf of the Right Centre, urging the maintenance of the *provisoire* and presenting a counter-proposition, to the effect—

“ 1. That the powers of Marshal MacMahon be confirmed, with the title of President of the Republic. 2. That a Second Chamber be organised. 3. That the right of dissolving the Lower Chamber be conferred on the Marshal conjointly with the Second Chamber, and that the Marshal's successor be appointed by the Two Chambers united in congress.” The difference between the two proposals was apparently small; but the latter managed to avoid the implication which the former conveyed, i.e., the definitive recognition of the Republic, and gave more substance to the Septennate. A noisy debate ensued. General Changarnier warmly advocated the motion of M. de Ste. Croix. M. Laboulaye seconded with energy that of M. Périer. M. de Kerdrel submitted a third proposition, to the effect that things should be left for the present as they were. M. Raoul Duval, who had always passed for a Bonapartist in disguise, stepped forth to advocate a *plebiscitum*, amid the plaudits of the Imperialist portion of the Assembly. But the startling event of the day's sitting was the appearance in the tribune of the Duke de la Rochefoucauld-Bisaccia, the French Ambassador at London, with a proposition framed in the interests of uncompromising Legitimacy. It ran thus:—

“ Art. 1. The Government of France is a Monarchy, having at its head the Chief of the House of France. Art. 2. Marshal MacMahon is appointed Lieutenant-General of the Kingdom. Art. 3. The Monarchical institutions shall be regulated by the nation and the King.” A moment of stupor followed the announcement of this motion. That the Official Ambassador of the Head of the State should have made such a demonstration was astonishing in the extreme. Then derisive murmurs were heard from the Left: loud cheers from the few Deputies representing extreme Royalism. The result of the day's voting was not less curious than its incidents had been. A majority of *one* was declared in favour of Urgency for the Bill of M. Casimir-Périer. The Bonapartists then voted with the Royalists in order to neutralise this motion, by sending the proposition of M. de la Rochefoucauld also to the Commission of Thirty. Four of the Ministers, as well as the Prince de Joinville and M. de Broglie, voted to this effect; however, by a majority of about sixty, their attempt was defeated. The daring author of the Legitimist motion resigned his post as Ambassador to England the same evening, at the request of Marshal MacMahon, who thus desired to make clear his own non-complicity with the designs of the Monarchical party.

In spite of the disclaimer of M. Rouher as to any knowledge of the existence of Imperialist Committees, M. Girard's exposition of the circular issued on occasion of the election for the Nièvre left no doubt on the mind of anxious observers that an underhand agitation of formidable dimensions was being carried on in the interests of the Bonapartist dynasty. In fact, M. Rouher had scarcely uttered his denial, when an Imperialist paper, calling itself *L'Abeille des Pyrénées*, defiantly declared that there was a Com-

mittee in Paris and one in every department. Pamphlets and newspapers advocating an appeal to the people, and eulogising Napoleon IV., were busily disseminated. Photographs of the young Chiselhurst Claimant were distributed far and wide. A sort of panic now seemed to beset those who deprecated the revival of Imperialist hopes. Government, concerned to exculpate itself from any part in such revival, directed the Procureur-Général of the Court of Paris, to institute domiciliary investigations at the residences of Imperialist journalists and agents. No very compromising discoveries were as yet made. The mysterious Committees, if they existed, eluded detection. Printed documents in the interests of Bonapartism, photographs of the Prince Imperial, and a few party emblems found here and there, seemed hardly enough to justify or support legal proceedings. But the Marshal-President, by an explicit declaration made in his Order of the Day to the Army on occasion of a review in the Bois de Boulogne, did much to reassure those who had distrusted his thorough loyalty to the provisional form of Government of which he assumed to be for seven years the representative. After praising the spirit and discipline of the troops, he said: "The National Assembly, in confiding to me for seven years the Executive Power, has placed in my hands during that period the guardianship of order and of the public peace. This part of the mission which has been imposed on me belongs equally to you. We will fulfil it together to the end, maintaining everywhere the authority of the law and the respect due to it." It was remarked that this was the first time that the Marshal, in the face of the pretensions of parties all claiming the right of announcing their projects and hopes, had declared his firm resolution not to allow any attack on the Septennial powers placed in his hands.

The general public drew a breath of satisfaction. But among the Legitimists a flutter was perceptible. Some counter-blast was evidently expected. And on July 3 it found utterance in the pages of the *Union* in the shape of a manifesto from the Comte de Chambord, dated from Montreux, in the Canton de Vaud:—

"Frenchmen: You have demanded the salvation of our country from temporary solutions, and you appeal to be on the eve of rushing into fresh hazards. Every one of the Revolutions that have happened during the last eighty years has been a striking demonstration of the Monarchical temperament of the country. France has need of Royalty. My birth has made me your King. I should be wanting to the most sacred of my duties if at this solemn moment I did not make a final effort to overturn the barrier of prejudices which still separates me from you. I am aware of all the accusations directed against my policy, against my attitude, my words, and my acts. There is nothing, even my silence, which does not serve as a pretext for incessant recriminations. If I have preserved silence for long months, it is because I did not wish to render more difficult the mission of the illustrious

soldier whose sword is protecting you. But to-day, in the face of so many accumulated errors, of so many falsehoods that have been circulated, of so many honest people deceived, silence is no longer allowable. Honour imposes on me an energetic protest. In declaring in the month of October last that I was ready to renew with you the bond of our destinies, to restore the shaken edifice of our national greatness, with the co-operation of all sincere minds without distinction of rank, origin, or party—in affirming that I retracted nothing of the declarations constantly repeated for thirty years in official and private documents, which are in the hands of everybody, I counted on the proverbial intelligence of our race and on the clearness of our language. People have pretended to infer that I placed the Royal power above the laws, and that I was dreaming of I know not what Governmental systems based on arbitrary and absolute principles. No; the Christian and French Monarchy is in its very essence a limited (*tempérée*) Monarchy, which has nothing to borrow from those Governments of chance which promise the golden age and lead to the abyss. This limited Monarchy admits of the existence of two Chambers, one of which is nominated by the Sovereign within fixed categories, and the other by the nation according to the kind of suffrage settled by the law. Where is there room here for anything arbitrary? On the day when you and I shall be able, face to face, to handle together the interests of France, you will learn how the union of the people and the King enabled the French Monarchy to baffle during so many centuries the designs of those who only carry on a struggle against the King in order to domineer over the people. It is not true that my policy is inconsistent with the aspirations of the country. I desire a strong restorative power. France desires it no less than myself. Her interest impels her to it. Her instinct demands it. Serious and durable alliances are being sought. Everybody comprehends that the traditional Monarchy alone can give them to us. I wish to find in the Representatives of the Nation vigilant auxiliaries for the consideration of the questions submitted to their control. But I do not wish for those barren Parliamentary struggles, whence the Sovereign too frequently issues powerless and enfeebled; and if I reject the formula of foreign importation which all our national traditions repudiate, with its King who reigns and does not govern, I feel myself on that point in perfect accord with the desires of the immense majority of you who understand nothing of these fictions, and are weary of these falsehoods. Frenchmen, I am ready to-day as I was yesterday. The House of France is sincerely, loyally reconciled. Rally confidently behind it. A truce to our divisions, in order that we may think only of our country's evils. Has she not suffered sufficiently? Is it not time to restore to her, with her ancient Royalty, prosperity, security, dignity, greatness, and all that assemblage of fruitful liberties which you will never obtain without it? The task is a laborious one, but, God helping

us, we can accomplish it. Let every one weigh in his conscience the responsibilities of the present, and bethink himself of the severity of history.

“HENRI V.”

Immediately after issuing this manifesto, the infatuated Prince approached the French frontier, in order to be ready to enter the country should any sudden movement in his favour be its consequence. But, on the contrary, it was both a surprise and a consternation to the Monarchists of all shades. Here was an outspoken repudiation of the first principles of Constitutional Government, a theory of Sovereignty more despotic than that of the Empire, inasmuch as the latter, resting on Universal Suffrage, professed to give the people at least what the people itself wished; while the theory of Right Divine professed to give them what the Despot himself thought best for them. The Orleanists were thrown over by the contemptuous reminder that they and their Prince had consented to abdicate and range themselves behind the eldest Bourbon. As to the White Flag, no special mention was again made of that significant emblem; but the very silence too plainly implied its retention.

The Council of Ministers, on the appearance of the document, adopted a measure of very questionable policy. They decided immediately to suspend the *Union* newspaper for a fortnight. The Legitimists were justified in feeling irritation at such inequality of justice being dealt to them and to other political offenders in the public journals. Had not Imperialists been allowed much freer scope for their utterances? And again why proceed against the public press for publishing the words of a Pretender, when that so-called Pretender's claims might be urged any day with impunity within the walls of the National Assembly—nay, had been urged, but lately, by the Duc de la Rochefoucauld-Bisaccia? On July 8, M. Lucien Brun brought forward an Interpellation against Ministers on behalf of the party; and boldly read aloud the Manifesto itself, thereby ensuring its republication in the *Journal Officiel*. He contrasted the impunity allowed to the circulation of Prince Louis Napoleon's Chiselmhurst address with the severity shown towards that of the Comte de Chambord, and maintained that the Legitimists, in consenting to the prolongation of Marshal MacMahon's powers, had never contemplated precluding themselves from bringing back the King. M. de Fourtou replied on behalf of the Government. He professed great personal respect for the Comte de Chambord, and said that if his address had been written to a private friend it might have passed unnoticed, but directed as it was to the nation it could not be overlooked. He declared that the Marshal was determined to maintain the powers entrusted to him by the Assembly, and in doing so would deal equal justice to all parties. The motion was rejected by 379 to 80, the Legitimists only voting for it, and the Left abstaining. The Legitimist movement being thus defeated, a Bouapartist member, M. Prax-Paris, came forward with the

following motion : "The Assembly resolves energetically to uphold the powers conferred for seven years by the law of November 20 upon Marshal MacMahon, President of the Republic, and, reserving the question submitted to the Committee on Constitutional Bills, passes to the Order of the Day."

General de Cissey declared the Government's adhesion to this proposition; but when a vote was taken it was defeated by a majority of thirty-seven. A tumultuous scene ensued, the Cabinet being evidently compromised by the defeat. On the sitting being resumed, M. Dahirel, of the Left, brought forward a third motion : "The Assembly, blaming the Cabinet for the use they have made of the powers of the State of Siege, passes to the Order of the Day." General Changarnier upon this came forward to relieve the position of the Marshal-President, by proposing the Order of the Day pure and simple; and this was carried by 399 votes against 315. Thus in the strange fitfulness of French politics, there had fallen out three more or less contradictory results this day : first a defeat of the Legitimists; secondly a defeat of Government; thirdly a Government victory. But the Government defeat involved too much of a censure on Ministers to be overlooked; and accordingly they tendered their resignation, which, however, the Marshal-President refused to accept.

The next move on the political board was a Message addressed by the Marshal to the Assembly, and read to that capricious body by General de Cissey on the 9th. It began by giving the Marshal's own version of the vote of the previous November. He rejected the theory that it was a vote like other votes, capable of nullification. The trust committed to him he held to have been placed above all dispute; the duties imposed upon him to be duties from which he could not in any case withdraw; the powers with which he was invested to have a fixed duration, and to be irrevocable during the Seven Years for which they were granted. "These powers," he added, "I shall defend by the means with which the laws have armed me." The Marshal went on to say that the law of November 20 was as yet inorganic, and needed to be completed; that the speedy organisation of Public Powers was requisite as a pledge of stable government for the country whose prosperity could not otherwise be assured; and he intimated that the measures deemed essential for this end would be submitted without delay to the Committee on Constitutional Laws.

The Message was warmly applauded by the Centres, Right and Left. It suited M. Casimir-Périer to assume that the President had in effect recommended what he had been himself about to urge—the speedy presentation by the Committee of their Report upon his motion for the declaration of a Republic. M. Raoul Duval, whose sympathies were believed, though not openly avowed, to be with the Bonapartists, then brought forward a direct motion for a dissolution, to be followed by general elections for a new Assembly in October. M. Casimir-Périer objected to a vote of urgency for

this motion, not wishing the Assembly to separate before deciding on his own resolution, nor desiring to abandon the elections at once to the unknown contingencies of the political situation. The more advanced sections of the Left, however, supported the proposal, which had also the adhesion of some, but by no means all, of the Bonapartist Deputies. When the vote was taken the numbers in favour of it amounted to 180; but the majority against it was decisive, and the motion for "urgency" was rejected.

By the public in general the Marshal's Message was well received. The Funds rose in token of improved confidence. Dreams of more settled government were somehow admitted into the popular previsions. But the Marshal had committed himself to nothing more than the strict preservation of the Septennate. The provisional powers which he claimed, and expressed himself as determined to defend in case of need, and the organic laws which he desired to see established, were altogether independent of the question whether Republicanism or Monarchy was to be the ultimate Constitution of the State. The following day two of the Ministers, General Cissey and M. de Fourtou, attended the Committee of Thirty, and laid before it the essential points to be observed in the organisation of the Marshal's powers. The three demands he made for the central authority were—the right of Dissolution, the right of nominating a majority of the Second Chamber, and the adoption of the *Arrondissement* instead of the Department as the electoral unit.

On the 15th the Committee of Thirty presented its Report by the mouth of M. Ventavon. It rejected M. Casimir-Périer's proposition of the definitive proclamation of the Republic, on the ground that such a barren declaration would have no real advantage, and would only tend to excite party passions, while the title of President of the Republic might be given without it. It was better to ensure order and security for seven years, giving France the opportunity at the expiration of that term of continuing or modifying the system without shock or revolution.

The Committee presented its own scheme, which was comprised in the following clauses: "1. The Marshal-President of the Republic continues to exercise the powers conferred upon him by the law of November 20, under the title of President of the Republic.

"2. The President is only responsible in case of high treason. The Ministers are responsible to the Chamber.

"3. There shall be two Chambers. The formation and composition of the Senate shall be determined by a subsequent law.

"4. The right of Dissolution belongs to the President of the Republic, who shall convoke the new Chamber within six months.

"5. During the term of the Marshal's powers the right of revision shall rest in him alone."

But this scheme struck the public mind at once as illogical and unstatesmanlike. It served to facilitate the way for the reconsideration of the Casimir-Périer proposition, which its author

brought forward again, in spite of its rejection by the Committee, on July 23.

Meanwhile, ministerial changes had taken place in connection with another subject of legislative consideration, that of the Budget.

The defeat, in November 1873, of certain schemes of taxation proposed by M. Magne, the Minister of Finance, for covering the deficit of seven millions sterling with which he then found himself confronted, had placed him in a very embarrassing position. The discussions of July did not help his endeavours. It was generally agreed that a deficit of two millions, which still remained, was a thing not to be tolerated. But there was a wide diversity of opinions as to the mode in which it should be filled up. M. Magne taxed his ingenuity to invent new taxes, or additions to old ones; but in vain. The returns seemed to show that to augment the indirect taxes would simply be to check consumption; and if fewer buyers came into the market, no gain to Government would ensue. The Minister then turned his thoughts to direct taxes, or, as an alternative, to an increased duty on salt, an article which even the poorest people must buy. The Assembly would not fall in with his schemes. It considered that the direct taxes were already exceedingly high in proportion to the indirect taxes; and it feared the inevitable unpopularity which would attach to any increase of the duty on salt. The objections were all sound and intelligible; but the difficulty remained, and must be met. M. Magne declared himself unable to solve the problem. The Assembly then took the matter into its own hands, and adopted a proposal made by M. Wolowski, that the two millions wanted should be procured by the easy method of postponing the payment of debts. The State had undertaken to remit to the Bank its advances made during the war by yearly instalments of eight millions sterling. If the Bank had only six millions instead of eight, the deficit would for the time be covered. It was something like the method of the Unjust Steward—"Take thy bill quickly, and write down fifty." The Assembly, indeed, held to the doctrine that the Bank must be reimbursed, and that out of the current proceeds of taxation. The change it proposed was that, instead of eight millions being paid for six years, six millions should be paid for eight years. It was ready to pay all that could be paid; but was of opinion that, the country being simply unable to endure increase of taxation in any form, the Bank must be content with receiving smaller remittances than had been promised it. M. Magne, rather than assent to the new arrangement, resigned. He declined to be Minister of Finance any longer if the six millions were substituted for the eight. He would not sanction the claim of any party that happened to be in power to make the Bank accommodate itself to the designs of the moment. An engagement was an engagement, and must be fulfilled. And with him resistance on this point was a matter of economical as

well as political principle. He fell a victim, it was said, to his fidelity to a Sinking Fund. His resignation was followed by that of M. Fourtou, the Minister of the Interior. The retirement of these Ministers was a great blow to the Bonapartist faction, with which they were known to be in sympathy. Their places were filled by M. Mathieu Bodet in the Finance Department, and by M. Chabaud Latour in that of the Interior.

It was on July 23, a week after M. Fourtou's resignation, that M. Casimir-Périer brought on anew his proposition for the definitive proclamation of the Republic. The occasion had been long expected; the proposition to be debated had been for weeks the talk of politicians, and it was agreed that this was to be the important debate of the Session. When the time came the hopes of the audience were not disappointed. The leading men of the Assembly spoke, and spoke their best. M. Casimir-Périer was earnest and logical, and the frankness with which he admitted the conversion of himself and his party from Monarchical principles to a Republic as the only possible Government, was in the best style of French oratory.

He said, the hesitation displayed by the Constitutional Committee arose from the fact that the Government lacked a fixed basis. Formerly the party he represented did not desire a Republic, but the country desired a definite form of Government, and, Monarchy having become impossible, it was now the duty of all good citizens to gather together upon the platform of the Republic. He denied that his proposals were unconstitutional. It was necessary to constitute the Republic, since it had been found impossible to establish any other form of Government. He had nothing to say against Marshal MacMahon, but it could not be desired that a power should perpetually exist which united in itself the weaknesses of a provisional state of things with the perils of a Dictatorship. Never yet had there been a Governmental Chief without the Government itself being defined; every Government ought to rest upon a legal principle and not upon the will of a single man. Other parties in the Assembly besides the Left Centre might accept the Republic without disavowing their past; it was not a disavowal but an act of resignation to the only Government possible. M. Casimir-Périer concluded by refuting an accusation made against him of acting in opposition to his father's political views, and narrated how his father himself had gradually become a partisan of the Republic.

The Duc de Broglie took a didactic tone. He spoke very strongly against Republican Government, and, with regard to the danger of a Dictatorship involved in the maintenance of a provisional *régime*, declared that Marshal MacMahon was a loyal soldier, and there was no fear of his making a *coup d'état*.

His speech was framed with some dexterity, and had the effect of rallying sundry waverers to the side of Government.

General de Cissey rose to state the views of the President and

his Ministers: "M. Casimir-Périer's Bill," he said, "needlessly alluded to the law of November 20, which ought to be left out of discussion. The clause relative to the establishment of two Chambers was also useless, the Assembly having already decided thus to divide the legislative power. The adoption of this Bill would be regarded as having no other object than to proclaim a definitive Republic, and the Government did not think that a remedy for the existing disquietude was to be found in a doctrinal proclamation of that kind. It would satisfy one party, but would not bring about a pacification of the others. The country," he said, "demands the organisation of Marshal MacMahon's power. We expect from you a law organising an Upper Chamber, a law conferring upon the Marshal the right of dissolution, and an electoral law. We have to organise the Government for seven years; after then, the country, remaining mistress of herself, will determine her own destiny."

The division was taken at twenty minutes to eight, when the numbers were—for M. Casimir-Périer's Bill, 333; against it, 374; showing a majority for the Government of 41. All the Right, including the Right Centre and the Bonapartists, voted against the Bill.

Thus defeated, the Left retaliated by at once bringing forward a motion for Dissolution. M. Léon de Malleville, of the Left Centre, pronounced it in the following form: "Considering that the divided state of parties in the Assembly is an insurmountable obstacle to the organisation of public powers, and that under these circumstances it is necessary that the country should be consulted, the National Assembly decrees that general elections shall be held on September 5. The present Assembly shall separate immediately afterwards."

"Urgency" was demanded for the proposition; but Government again proved victorious. On a division, the onslaught of the Republicans was defeated by a majority of 29.

Then came the turn of the Right. On the following day the Marquis de Castellane moved that the passing of the Constitutional Laws should be postponed till after the recess. M. Malatre, a deputy belonging to the manufacturing class, added a proposal that the recess itself should be prolonged till January 5, 1875; and, to the discomfiture of those who believed that Government had pledged itself to push forward the long-talked-of organic laws, M. Chabaud Latour, the new Minister of the Interior, announced from the tribune that, after due consultation with his Cabinet, the Marshal-President had determined to sanction the postponement of the whole Constitutional project. Though anxious, he said, to see the laws in question passed as soon as might be, yet Government could not forget how arduous the labours of the Assembly had been, and how much its members needed an interval of repose. Should they desire to give a more exhaustive attention to the pending Bills than they could now command, and

to consult the views of their constituents before proceeding to a vote upon them, Government would not interfere with their wishes. The discussion would be proceeded with immediately on the meeting of the Assembly, *next year*. The Malatre proposition, thus accepted by Government, was declared "urgent," and relegated to a committee. And "thus," to use the words of an English journalist, "the Government, which only twenty-four hours before had asked the Assembly to give it 'the necessary strength to defend and protect itself,' comes forward with alacrity to support a proposal for getting rid of the deputies and their Bills for nearly six months. Marshal MacMahon and his servants will defend and protect themselves by their present powers, and they seem to be in no apprehension of the consequences. They have got rid of the Casimir-Périer proposition by the help of the constitutional scheme, and they have got rid of the constitutional scheme by means of the heat of the weather and the general weariness of the deputies with Versailles and each other. Thus in forty-eight hours everything that the present session promised or threatened—Electoral Bill, Upper Chamber Bill, Casimir-Périer project, Ventavon project—has been swept away, and, as far as organic institutions are concerned, France is now what she was on the morrow of the vote for the Septennate."

But the success of the promoters of adjournment served in its turn to stimulate the promoters of dissolution. The preparation of the reports on both sides was hurried on, and the ranks of battle clashed again on the 29th, when M. Raoul Duval, undeterred by his defeat on June 15, again proposed an appeal to the constituencies throughout France for October 25.

"The Royalists," he remarked, "had said that their King could not wait at the Septennate door; but could France be required to wait? The Assembly were like insolvent debtors, ever trying to renew their bills. That they did not now represent public opinion was evident by forty-two departments being still in a state of siege." Again Government was victorious. A majority of 43 decided the question against M. Duval.

On the 31st the adjournment propositions came on for discussion. The Committee recommended, instead of the prolonged term suggested by M. Malatre, a prorogation from August 6 to November 30, and this term was finally adopted by the Chamber. The most remarkable speech on the occasion was one from M. Gambetta, to whom the majority gave at the outset the unusual compliment of patient attention. The supporters of Government, indeed, were too sure of their own success to feel excited; while M. Gambetta spoke with a studied moderation of tone which seemed to deprecate vehemence in his antagonists. But he spoke earnestly and sternly, and in uncompromising opposition to all projects of adjournment.

"It is difficult," he said, "to speak under these circumstances, and it is difficult to remain silent. It is not easy to justify so

prematurely prolonged a prorogation immediately after the discussions of the last fortnight. If, however, there are duties which it is difficult at certain moments to discharge, there are also duties which it is impossible to evade. The proposal submitted to you derives an exceptionally critical character from the circumstances under which it is brought forward. Some allege your impotence, others deny it, and it was perhaps in order to shelter yourselves from this reproach that you rejected the dissolution, which would have been an implicit avowal of that impotence. It would be well, perhaps, before thinking of a rest which the nation will not enjoy with you, that you should pass the Constitutional Laws. We formerly questioned your constituent power; we accept it to-day, for it is a settled matter. But if you had this constituent power when you were elected, there were then only three known Governments from which you could make a choice—the Empire, the Monarchy, and the Republic. It certainly could not have been in the contemplation either of yourselves or your electors to create a Government representing no form then known, answering to none of the three known forms which you might then have had in view. You set aside the Empire at the outset by your vote of deposition, and you were so numerous at the time of your assembling at Bordeaux that your heads were turned, and you fancied the country had chosen your opinions when it had only chosen your persons. . . . Powerful as you are in number and intelligence, how is it you have been unable to complete that laborious Monarchical enterprise which you prosecuted with such ardour last year, and which was wrecked by the repudiation of October 27? After that failure you persisted in the course you had entered upon, and after check upon check, failure upon failure, you arrived at the Septennate. Nothing would be easier than to show that you cannot organise the Septennate such as you have created it, that you will be as unable four months hence as now you are to organise it, and that the problem can be solved only by patriotic ideas above all party interests. You are advised to take a recess, in order not to lose yourselves in the defile of the Septennate by leaving behind you I know not what Spanish dictatorship which makes the country uneasy. You are told to go into the country to consult your electors. I hope you may find electors who will sincerely enlighten you. You will see what storms will arise and you will come back frightened at the responsibility you have incurred. . . . You call yourselves a sovereign body. Now, a sovereign does not take repose. You have assumed the direction of the country. It is necessary, therefore, that you should not abandon that direction, that you should not abdicate your sovereignty by taking a rest which you have not earned. That rest is a piece of pure strategy. To fly from problems is not to solve them, and your own interest requires you to show the country, by not abandoning your duty, that you intend to perform it. . . . The prorogation is said to be a traditional custom,

and rest is said to be good for the health. But have you earned this repose? Do you leave behind you that political and administrative security without which to-morrow appears troubled, and without which repose is full of agitation? What have you done as regards politics since May 18, 1873? Nothing beyond rejecting all the propositions submitted to you. You have rejected the Republic, but the Republic is inevitable. You must be prepared for the existence of democracy, an invincible democracy."

The remarkable feature of this speech, as evincing the determination of the speaker to keep within the bounds of statesman-like prudence, was his admission that the present Assembly had constituent rights, if only they would exercise those rights; a concession which the fanatics of the Extreme Left had always refused to make, but which was of importance as conciliating the more moderate Republicans.

As Gambetta proceeded with his speech, he met with sundry noisy interruptions from the Right. One of these gave rise to a very violent scene in the next day's sitting of the Assembly. M. Schœlcher, a prominent Radical member, deputy for La Martinique, said he had read in the *Journal Officiel* that, on the previous day, M. Galloni d'Istria (a member of the Imperialist faction) had interrupted M. Gambetta with the expression, "In 1852 the Republic fell, amid the contempt and disgust of all honest people." M. Schœlcher desired to know whether the words were correctly reported, and whether their speaker maintained them. M. Galloni d'Istria was for the moment absent; but M. de Gavardie, an impetuous Royalist, shrieked out that he indorsed them; whereupon several Republican deputies rushed across the hemicycle as he was resorting to personal violence. Thereupon ensued tremendous confusion, which only increased when M. Schœlcher, turning round to M. Gavardie, gave him the lie direct at the top of his voice. M. Buffet, from the Presidential chair, at once called the offender to order, and energetically remonstrated with the wranglers on both sides, but nothing he could say had the slightest effect, and he was driven to the terrible expedient of putting on the official hat, and thereby suspending the sitting.

The concluding sittings of the Assembly were chiefly taken up with debates on the Budget of 1875, which was eventually passed with only one dissentient voice. But the deficit of 1874 had still to be covered, for the Council and Governor of the Bank of France refused to agree to M. Wolowski's proposal of a reduction of payment on the Annual State Debt. M. Bodet proposed as a substitute the imposition of additional centimes on existing taxes. This was rejected by the Assembly on the last day of the Session, and the deficit remained staring the unhappy Finance Minister in the face, the only alternative before him being the acceptance of the offer of a loan from the Bank, in defiance of all the vaunted maxims of financial virtue. The Bonapartists were not a little pleased at his proved inability to surmount the obstacles before

which M. Magne had been driven to retire. Once more the Radicals endeavoured to obtain a vote on the question of adjournment; they were told by M. Martel, who happened to act as President on the occasion, that such a course would be contrary to the rules of the Chamber. Eventually the Session was brought to a close amidst the clamour of a number of irate deputies calling in question the authority of the President and the decision of the majority.

Thus terminated an episode of parliamentary history in France—from January to August, 1874—singularly undignified in its incidents and unfruitful in its results. The mutual antagonism of factions unable to move themselves, yet jealous of letting their rivals stir a step, the capricious phases of personal and party adhesion, had resulted in leaving the political machine at a standstill. The Septennate had come round to the point from which it had started. It still bore the character of *Provisorium*, no one knowing what form of government its provisional holder was to represent. In spite of promises, the Constitutional Laws which were to afford some basis for State administration, were left knocking at the doors of the Assembly, no nearer entrance than when M. Thiers had left them there in May 1873. Even the organic law on Municipalities, which Government had professed to have at heart, was stifled for the time being; the temporary measure of January 20, which placed the appointment of mayors wholly in the hands of the central authority, having been prolonged, on a motion of M. Clapier's of June 20, from a one year's to a two years' term. With a general impression that such a futile state of things could not long continue, that a legislative body so impotent to carry a single measure for the satisfaction of the nation's uncertainties, must soon dissolve for very lack of vital force, the country received back into its bosom the deputies who professed to represent it in the halls of Versailles, and the Permanent Committee commenced its fortnightly sittings at the headquarters of administration.

During the period which we have been surveying, two of the political actors who had made their names more or less conspicuous on the arena of debate and in Ministerial councils had passed away—M. Beulé and M. de Goulard. M. Beulé died by his own hand, on April 5. His numerous failures as a politician seem to have preyed upon his mind. As a man of letters he had achieved a more solid reputation, his chief work having been the *Studies on the Cæsars*, published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* towards the close of the Second Empire, in which he had openly compared Napoleon III. to the Emperors Domitian and Caligula.

M. de Goulard died on July 5, little more than a month after he had been engaged in an abortive attempt to form a Ministry which should replace that of the Duc de Broglie. His management of the finances under M. Thiers is matter of recent history. He was a man who, without having achieved extra-

ordinary distinction, was highly thought of, and enjoyed the respect of all parties.

An obituary notice is also due to one, not a statesman, whose name will ever rank high among the French literary celebrities of the nineteenth century. M. Jules Michelet, the historian, whom some have called the "Macaulay" of his country's annals, died at Hyères on February 9, at the age of seventy-six. From this brilliant but eccentric man of genius it might seem too great a descent to mention Jules Janin, the clever *feuilletonist*, the Parisian's "prince of critics," whose funeral, however, on June 21, was almost a national event, nearly the whole of the Paris literary and artistic world being present on the occasion.

CHAPTER II.

"Crimes of Limours"—A French "Clamant"—Escape of New Caledonian convicts—Escape of Marshal Bazaine—The President's tour—Death of M Guizot—State of parties—Elections parliamentary, provincial, and municipal—Rival Bonapartists—Prince of Wales at Echmont and Chantilly—The Spanish Note—The withdrawal of the *Océanque*—Right and Left Centres—Winter Session of the Assembly—Comte de Chambord's letter—Presidential Message—Debates on University education and freedom of worship—Conscription provisions—Bonapartist debate—Remarks on Arnim trial—Death of M Ledru-Rollin.

IN the absence of strong dramatic excitement in the political world, the public mind during the parliamentary season found means to feed its taste for things new and strange, in some incidents connected with the domain of judicature. Of these, we shall select for special mention the "Crimes of Limours" and the Naundorff litigation. The canton of Limours is a district situated within a few leagues from Paris. In January 1873, a garde-chasse and his wife were found assassinated in their cottage at Augerville, with their heads beaten in and almost separated from their bodies. A rigorous but fruitless search was made to discover the perpetrator of the crime, and the excitement caused by the event was dying out, when one evening in October, the servant of the curé of the neighbouring village of Vaugrigneuse, on answering the door of the presbytery, found herself assaulted by an individual who beat her about the head, but at once took to flight on her crying for help. Four days afterwards an old man named Bunet was found dead between the two mattresses of his bed, having been struck over the head with a hatchet. A fowling-piece, a small sum of money, and several *titres de rente* had been stolen by the murderer, whom the police were unable to discover. At the end of the month following, an individual named Duval, residing at the hamlet of Forges-lès-Bains, was assassinated in the same manner as Bunet, the murderer carrying

off all the valuables in the house. The last crime was committed on the night preceding Christmas Eve, when two elderly unmarried ladies residing at St. Maurice, were murdered in a similarly barbarous style, their money and jewellery being stolen. The whole district became panic-struck; houses were barricaded at night-time, and no one dared to venture out after six o'clock. Towards the end of January 1874, a rural postman named Désiré Legrand, was found in a pine-wood, near the hamlet of Vaugrigneuse, strangled with his own pocket-handkerchief, having evidently committed suicide. His letter-bag was found by his side, containing, besides the letters he had to deliver, a written statement, declaring his personal innocence of the crimes in question, and giving the names of the alleged murderers, five in number. It was generally thought that Désiré was seriously compromised in the murders, and that he committed suicide from feelings of remorse. The persons he had denounced were forthwith apprehended, but after detaining them in prison for two months, the police authorities, being convinced of their innocence, set them at liberty, and the public mind remained as mystified as ever on the subject. That eight or ten persons should have been assassinated with impunity in a small district, within a few leagues of Paris, was a startling affair. The police began the hunt again, but could find no trace. But in the month of June an agricultural labourer, named Poirier, was taken up on the charge of a murder committed near Nogent le Rotrou, also in the vicinity of Paris, though not in the same direction. The circumstances were these: On May 25, a farmer and his wife residing at a place called Tertre, went to the fête of Charbonnières, leaving behind them their children; returning in the afternoon they found their son and daughter both lying in a pool of blood, the girl quite dead, and the boy in a hopeless condition. The authorities immediately commenced an inquiry, the result of which indicated Poirier as the assassin. When the police went to arrest him it was found that he had left home; upon learning which, the whole population, armed with old muskets, scythes, &c., turned out to beat the country, which is thickly wooded. After some time Poirier was driven to a copse, and after a vain effort to break through the toils, he was forced to surrender. After his arrest, he confessed to a series of murders, beginning some years back, but denied having anything to do with those committed in the canton of Lamours, or having had any accomplice in the atrocities to which he pleaded guilty. His assertions, however, did not meet with entire credit, and people were inclined rather to indulge the belief that the same wretch or wretches had been guilty of the double series of massacres, than that the system had been carried out from two independent centres of crime. Poirier was tried in the Assize Court of the Eure et Loir, and executed at Chartres in September.

The Naundorff litigation was no less than the suit of a

claimant to be the rightful representative of the Royal Bourbon line, as against the Comte de Chambord. The claimant himself was a so-called Captain Adelbert de Bourbon, of the Dutch Army, whose father, generally known by the name of Naundorff, a clock-maker, had, fifty years previously, asserted his pretensions to be the unfortunate Dauphin of the Temple, and had chosen to call himself the Duc de Normandie. Naundorff's pretensions had been put an end to by a decree of one of the French tribunals without trial; by which decree also he had been expelled from France. He had died at Delft in 1845. In Holland, however, the claims of himself and his family seem to have met with rather general recognition, and his sons had been advanced to posts in the State. On the present occasion, M. Jules Favre was the advocate selected to make good the pretensions of the *soi-disant* grandson of Louis XVI. He went through the story of the asserted escape of the Dauphin, as thus:—

The Dauphin was confined in the tower of the Temple, and there was only one door. Several devoted conspirators, and among them the Comte de Montmorin and Josephine de Beauharnais, furnished the necessary funds. One morning some opium was administered to the Dauphin, who was carried upstairs in a basket, and a lay figure, made to resemble him, was placed in his bed. After a short time this fraud was discovered, and the Government had a deaf and dumb child substituted, so as to make it believed that Louis XVII. was still in the Temple. A doctor was called in to poison the child, but an apothecary administered a counter poison, and shortly afterwards both doctor and apothecary were poisoned. As the deaf and dumb boy would not die, a sickly lad was procured from a hospital; and he soon died, was subjected to a post-mortem examination, and was placed in a coffin. This coffin was taken upstairs, where the Dauphin had passed some eight or ten months; another substitution was accomplished, the dead body was placed in a basket, and Louis XVII. was put in the coffin. On the way to the cemetery a last substitution was effected; the Dauphin was slipped out of the coffin and some bundles of papers slipped in. Louis XVII. was confided to the care of trusty friends, and all the Courts of Europe were warned of what had occurred. After these astonishing assertions, M. Jules Favre went on to accuse all the persons who had sworn to the death of the Dauphin as guilty of deliberate falsehood. He then said that the people chiefly concerned in the escape of the Dauphin were Barras, Charette, Josephine Beauharnais, Hoche, Pichegru, &c., adding that a man named Laurent, who had managed the details, was afterwards sent to Cayenne by Bonaparte. The widow Simon, who died in hospital in 1819, up to her last breath declared that the Dauphin had made his escape; and when questioned by the Duchesse d'Angoulême, by the Duchesse de Berri, and Talleyrand, she persisted in the truth of her statement. Shortly after Bonaparte married Josephine, he had the Dauphin's coffin taken up in pres-

ence of Fouché and Savary, and it was found empty. It was said, too, that in 1814, Josephine, disinclined to witness the usurpation of the Comte de Provence, confided the secret to the Emperor of Russia. The Comte did all he could to procure her silence, offering her a Marshal's bâton for her son Eugène Beauharnais, and a province of France. Prince Eugène refused. According to M. Jules Favre, in the secret Treaty of Paris, the high contracting Powers stated that they had no material proof of the death of Louis XVII. And on his death-bed Louis XVIII. referred M. Tionchet to a certain chest, which he examined, in company with M. de Villèle and two other Ministers. After an examination of its contents, the Ministers agreed to proclaim the Duc de Normandie (Louis XVII.), but Cardinal de Latil objected, and thus Charles X. was crowned.

M. Favre went into long details of the subsequent history of the escaped Dauphin, who, it was said, borrowed the name of Naundorff for convenience: and he dwelt on two attempts that had been made to assassinate him, the first at Prague, where he was stabbed one night in several places; and again in London, where he was shot through the arm with a bullet when he was quietly walking in his garden. Now, as the Republican advocate astutely remarked, people do not assassinate impostors, but they do assassinate kings.

But all M. Jules Favre's eloquence could not make good his client's case before the Court of Appeal; and on February 27 judgment was given against him on the following grounds:—

"Considering that the widow Naundorff and the children, issue of her marriage, claim against the Comte de Chambord the position and the rights which would belong to their father and her husband as son of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette; that the Dauphin, son of Louis XVI., died in the prison of the Temple on June 8, 1795, as was proved by a record of the same date, 24 Plurial, An. 3; that this record was destroyed during the Commune, but that copies have been produced which are not disputed by the defendants; that such record was drawn up in due form before two witnesses, agreeably to the law of December 24, 1792; that the widow and children Naundorff seek to furnish proofs that the Dauphin escaped from the Temple by means of a twofold substitution, the particulars of which they set forth, and which are most fantastic; considering that it was proved by the medical witnesses that the child which died in the Temple was afflicted with scrofula; that, therefore, the simultaneous residence of the Royal child, the dumb child, and the rickety child is inadmissible; that Naundorff was able to fabricate documents at his pleasure; that they cannot be seriously offered as proof, since a forger might easily have concocted them after acquainting himself with the circumstances of the events which he wishes to distort; considering that in the proof tendered there is nothing which appears to be convincing; considering that if the evidence of upright and

honest old men such as Lane and Gonin has been exposed to criticism in its details, it has been confirmed by other witnesses as to the facts as a whole, and places beyond all dispute the record of the death of the Dauphin; considering that this record of death is not open to attack by singular allegations, a host of vague rumours, futile presumption, and possession of a certain civil status abroad; that Naundorff was able to find persons of good faith easy to be deceived, and that it is not surprising to find him accompanied by such a following as has never been wanting to pseudo-Dauphins in France; considering that Naundorff exhibited no qualifications but those of a bold adventurer, a man without talent, who undertook to play a part rendered the more easy by the mystery of his birth, without more cunning and skill than those who preceded him; considering, lastly, that the certificate of death has all the force of authenticity, and that the statement of facts which it is desired to support by evidence has to be simply rejected; considering that the present judgment enters upon these details to establish a loftier barrier between the dignity of the Crown and the impostors who seek to approach it—for these reasons and those set forth by the Judges below, the Court confirms in all respects the judgment appealed against, and fines the Naundorff heirs accordingly.”

At the end of March much surprise was caused by a telegram announcing that M. Rochefort and five of his Communist fellow-exiles had escaped from their durance in the island of New Caledonia, amid the wastes of the Pacific Ocean. At first the incident seemed almost incredible. It was, indeed, a daring and spirited venture on the part of the *déportés*. The Government authorities, relying on the presence of numerous sharks in the waters round the island, had fancied the evasion of convicts highly improbable, and had contented itself with forbidding the approach of small craft within a certain number of yards of the shore. The captives were allowed to fish for recreation, and a very lax supervision was kept over them while thus employed. Rochefort and his friends watched their opportunity. They had contrived to secure the services of the owner of a boat; and one day, when occupied apparently as usual by the sea-shore, they suddenly plunged into the waves, swam some 300 yards, and reached the friendly vessel, from which they presently transferred themselves into one of larger dimensions, and made their way to Australia.

But a still more startling evasion of State captivity occurred before the summer was over. Scarcely had the Assembly separated, when the public was electrified by the intelligence that ex-Marshal Bazaine had escaped from his durance in the Isle St. Marguerite, by means of a rope-ladder and of a boat cleverly rowed by his wife and his wife's nephew. The version subsequently given of the affair by the late captive himself and Madame Bazaine was dramatic in the extreme; but people could not readily bring themselves to believe that mere chance had been so favourable as

they made out, or that a corpulent man of sixty-five had really, in the dead of night, let himself down a perpendicular cliff of nearly 100 feet, resting when half-way, by an iron hook attached to his girdle, then and there striking a lucifer-match as a signal to the faithful friends rowing over the stormy waters to his rescue, had thereafter plunged into the waves and battled his way till, almost dead from cold and exhaustion, he was dragged into the boat. It was more credible that his evasion had been facilitated by negligence on the part of some of the officials and connivance on that of others; and the judicial inquiry which was instituted into the matter on September 16, at Grasse, resulted in such a conclusion. That inquiry had to deal with the fate of eight persons who were arrested on the charge of complicity. The governor of the prison—M. Marchi, a Corsican, and therefore, so to say, a Bonapartist by blood—and four gaolers, were charged with neglect of duty conducing to the evasion of M. Bazaine; and Colonel Villette, the prisoner's friend and companion and former aide-de-camp, Captain Doineau, a cashiered officer of the army, and Barreau, the ex-Marshal's body-servant, were accused of having directly participated in the escape. M. Rull, the nephew of Madame Bazaine, was also accused, but he was not in the hands of justice, and his case was dealt with in his absence. The evidence was very conflicting, and in parts imperfect, and it was founded much more upon hypothesis than English practice would consider justifiable. The broad outlines, however, of the enterprise seem to have been these:—Madame Bazaine and M. Rull, evidently well-informed as to the laxity of the arrangements within the prison, chartered an Italian steamer, from which they landed at Cannes, and rowed in an open boat to the Isle of St. Marguerite. Bazaine had meantime received through Doineau a message from his wife to the effect that she had secured an Italian "villa," this being the watchword by which it was arranged Bazaine should understand the steamer had been chartered. The prisoner and his friend, Colonel Villette, then, according to the theory of the prosecution, were able to slip out of the rooms occupied by the ex-Marshal, between the hour when the governor left them and the hour when the gates were locked. To guard against the chance of being observed by the gaolers, Bazaine had asked a few days before for a tent as a shelter from the burning sun, and this served to screen his departure from his quarters on the night of the escape. Next comes the question, How did the prisoner make his way to the boat? He did so in one of two ways. Either he simply walked out through one of the posterns—and for this purpose he must have obtained the assistance of the governor and some of the gaolers—or he must have really lowered himself, or been lowered, over the cliff, as was affirmed in the sensational account presented, with some singular variations, in the letters of the ex-Marshal himself and of his wife. The Court at Grasse rejected the former hypothesis; but also declined to believe

that the prisoner, a man advanced in years and of heavy build, had descended without aid the face of a precipice like the sea-front of St. Marguerite. The Court concluded that it was Colonel Villette who gave the assistance required, that it was he who manufactured the rope, and that he fastened it round Bazaine's waist while the descent was being made. This would account for the fact that no signs of the strain of a rope had been discovered on the gargoyle of the parapet, at the foot of which, nevertheless, the rope was found. When Colonel Villette had performed this service, he was able to get back to his apartments in the prison just before the doors were locked for the night. Of course the escape of the prisoner was not detected till the following morning. Upon this theory of the escape the Court convicted Colonel Villette, Captain Doineau, two of the gaolers, and M. Rull, Madame Bazaine's nephew.

The sentences were not severe. To Colonel Villette was awarded only six months' imprisonment. The same punishment was formally inflicted upon the absent M. Rull. Plantin, the most scandalously negligent of the gaolers, was also condemned to six months' imprisonment, and his less culpable colleague, Gigoux, to one month's. Captain Doineau, who conveyed the important message from Madame Bazaine to her husband, got off with only two months' incarceration. M. Marchi, the Governor, and the rest of the officials, were acquitted; though it was shown that, to say the least, the administration of the State Prison of St. Marguerite was conducted with a laxity which would be severely condemned in the management of any common gaol.

In the middle of August the Marshal-President quitted the Élysée Palace, where he had taken up his quarters on the adjournment of the Assembly, to visit the north-western provinces. He was well received, but at some places the manifestations of popular feeling had peculiar significance. The cries of *Vive la République!* were frequent; so was the cry of *Vive le Président de la République!* That of *Vive le Maréchal!* was rarely heard. At St. Malo, M. Hovius, the ex-President of the Chamber of Commerce, ventured on a direct demand that he should give a definitive character to his rule. At Morlaix a tumult was created by the apostrophe of a young priest, who exclaimed, "Marshal, I call upon you, in the name of the Breton clergy, to defend Rome and Pius IX. as you defend France!" At St. Brieuc the Mayor cited an old saying attributed to the Marshal—"For us you represent Order and Peace. You said at the Malakhoff, 'I am here, and will remain here' (*Je suis et j'y reste*). You are there; remain there." At Brest the streets were thronged with people and brilliantly illuminated. At St. Nazaire and Nantes the greeting had a strong flavour of Republicanism. At "Black Angers" (*Angers le Noir*) the Bishop, an Ultramontane partisan, made allusion to the "grief and humiliation inflicted on the Church and its august head"; but his sentiments elicited no response from the Marshal,

whose silence was held to intimate his disapproval. On the whole he could not but see that the nation—as represented by North-western France—wanted him to make his position definite; and that a Septennate, bearing a provisional character merely, was unable to win the affections of the people or command their trust. In the Department of Calvados at this time the tendency of popular feeling shewed itself in the election to the Assembly of an Imperialist candidate, M. Delaunay; while, at the same time, the numbers polled on the Republican side showed no relative diminution of strength in that party—the absolute losers were the Legitimists and Royalists. The following month the Marshal made another northern tour, visiting Lille, Arras, and St. Quentin, his principal object being to inspect the state of the garrisons.

On September 12 there passed away from the world and its concerns one whose name once filled a conspicuous place in his country's political history. M. Guizot died at the advanced age of eighty-seven, at his rural retreat of Val Richer in Normandy. The following Tuesday he was buried in the neighbouring cemetery of S. Ouen le Pin, his remains being followed to the grave by the Vicomte d'Harcourt as representing the President of the Republic, by the Duc de Broglie, by the English Dean of Westminster, and by many functionaries and other men of note. M. Thiers was not able to be present at the funeral of his old political rival, but he wrote the following letter of condolence to M. Guillaume Guizot, in answer to the announcement of his father's death:—

“I appreciate more than anybody the immeasurable loss you have just suffered, for I was your illustrious father's contemporary long enough to know all the greatness of his merits. You are aware that in the midst of the difficulties of our time I often differed in opinion from him. But you must also be aware that those divergencies never prevented my rendering him the justice which he deserved, and I am convinced that he, on his part, did as much for me. If I were not obliged to husband my strength, especially on the eve of a rather too long journey, I should have repaired to Val Richer for the purpose of paying my sincere homage at the foot of the grave to my old and glorious colleague. Rest assured, however, that at this moment my thoughts will be with you, full of great and sympathetic recollections which go back nearly half a century.”

This is not the place to review the character or career of the statesman-historian-philosopher whose active life was now brought to a close by simple decay of nature; but one remark may be bestowed on a side of his nature which distinguished François Guizot from the great majority of Frenchmen in these modern times: he was a true representative of the old Huguenots, who were almost obliterated from the inventory of national life after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Grave, strict in his private morals, severe and dogmatic in his mental structure,

devoted to the interests of Protestantism, averse from rationalistic speculation, he obtained among his own co-religionists the nickname of "Pope Guizot." The confession of faith contained in his will declared the deliberate convictions of his life's experience on the highest of subjects:—

"I die in the bosom of the Reformed Christian Church of France, in which I was born and in which I congratulate myself on having been born. In remaining always connected with her I exercised the liberty of conscience which she allows her members in their relations with God, and which she herself invoked in establishing herself. I examined, I doubted, I believed that the strength of the human mind was sufficient to solve the problems presented by the universe and man, and that the strength of the human will was sufficient to regulate man's life according to its law and its moral end. After having long lived, acted, and reflected, I remained and still remain convinced that the universe and man are neither of them sufficient to explain and regulate themselves naturally by the mere force of fixed laws which preside over them and of the human wills which are brought into play. It is my profound belief that God, who created the universe and man, governs and preserves or modifies them, whether by those general laws which we call natural laws, whether by special acts which we call supernatural, emanating, like the general laws, from His perfect and free wisdom and from His infinite power, which He has enabled us to recognise in their effects and forbids us from being acquainted with in their essence and design. I thus returned to the convictions in which I was cradled, always firmly attached to the person and liberty which I have received from God, and which are my honour as well as my right on the earth, but again feeling myself a child in God's hands and sincerely resigned to so large a share of ignorance and weakness. I believe in God and adore Him, without attempting to comprehend Him. I see Him present and acting not only in the permanent government of the universe and in the innermost life of men's souls, but in the history of human societies, especially in the Old and New Testaments—monuments of the Divine Revelation and action by the mediation and sacrifice of our Lord Jesus Christ, for the salvation of the human race. I bow before the mysteries of the Bible and the Gospel, and I hold aloof from scientific discussion and solutions by which men have attempted to explain them. I trust that God permits me to call myself a Christian, and I am convinced that in the light which I am about to enter we shall fully discern the purely human origin and vanity of most of our dissensions here below on divine things."

The vigorous old man was engaged in writing to the end; and his "History of France for his Grandchildren" showed no decay of mental power: he had just completed the record of Louis XIV.'s reign. Almost his last words referred to his country. They are said to have been these:—" *Pauvre peuple, inconstant, malade,*

qui n'est fidèle ni aux autres ni à lui-même—difficile à servir : mais c'est un grand pays, et il faut le bien servir."

From the statesman whose battles were over, we turn again to the living strife of parties. A few hours after the world had been apprised of the death of M. Guizot the more exciting announcement was made that a Departmental election, fixed to take place in the Maine et Loire, had resulted in favour of M. Maillé, the Republican candidate, ex-Mayor of Angers, as against M. Bruas, the Septennialist, Mayor of Saumur, and M. Berger, an ex-Deputy, the Bonapartist nominees. This election had been looked forward to with especial anxiety by the different parties concerned. No pains had been spared to strengthen the position of the Government candidate. The numbers respectively polled were a surprise to all. M. Maillé received, in round numbers, 45,000 votes, at least 15,000 more than his party had expected him to gain; M. Bruas, 26,000; M. Berger, 25,000. The Imperialists, it was said, had had their heads turned by their success in Calvados, and risked the present venture without having one local journal to support them. But, according to the French Constitution, it was necessary that this election should be supplemented by another. When three candidates present themselves for election, the one who is definitively chosen must count more votes than his two rivals combined; and where this is not the case on the first ballot, a second ballot must ensue. This second ballot, in the case of the Maine et Loire election, took place on September 28. In hopes of defeating the Republican at any price, the Septennialists and Imperialists agreed to throw their votes together; and M. Berger withdrew in favour of the Government candidate. Notwithstanding this coalition, M. Maillé obtained 6,000 more votes on the second occasion than he had obtained on the first, and his enemies reaped the discredit of a singularly unprincipled conspiracy. For the Bonapartists, indeed—whose object was to get back the Empire in any way they could, and whose mode of action was known to be based on opportunity and expediency—the alliance was no matter of wonder; but the Orleanists, the party of whom the present supporters of the Septennate, as such, mainly consisted, showed a singular dereliction of the principles and traditions on which their political existence was founded, when they consented to an understanding with the partisans of Napoleon IV., and sacrificed to their dread of a Republic the championship of that moderate Constitutional freedom with which Imperialism was in direct and irreconcilable contradiction. But, in fact, their support of the Septennate on its own merits had already shown the Orleanists to be at this time the party which had less the courage of its ideas than either of the other three by whom the nation was divided. The attempt to fuse the interests of the White and the Tricolour Royalty having failed—the Legitimists turning on their would-be allies with the contemptuousness of impracticable consistency—the Republic, such a Republic as

Gambetta and the Extreme Left would accept, being, equally with successful Imperialism, simply their own extinction, the politicians who cherished the hope of seeing Louis Philippe's descendants guiding the destinies of France, found their best hope in waiting behind the dubious emblazonment of Marshal MacMahon's shield. This was conceivable, if not very dignified; but to aim at defeating the Republic by means of Bonapartist aid, cried most political critics of the Maine et Loire election, was blind as well as undignified; for the cause of the Napoleons only could gain by such an alliance, in the obvious temper of the country, and the cause of the Napoleons ought to have been eschewed by every Orleans adherent as the evil thing itself.

A speech delivered by M. Thiers, shortly after this election, to a deputation sent to greet him at Vizille, near Grenoble, was hailed as an encouragement to their prospects by the Republican party. After reviewing his own Administration, the veteran statesman said, in allusion to its fall:—"A Government was overturned which had concluded peace, and restored order, credit, the finances, and the army, because it would not lend itself to the re-establishment of the Monarchy. Well, has that Monarchy been re-established? Eighteen months have elapsed; they have had a majority, and the public force. Have they re-established it? No; they have spent the time and strength of the country in vacillation, which weakens us, and in the eyes of Europe leaves us neither the reality nor the appearance of a firm policy, settled in its views and knowing and doing what it wishes. The Monarchy is not adapted to the state of things in France and of men's minds. The rivalry, moreover, of three parties wanting different dynasties and institutions, ready to coalesce against any throne which might be set up, renders any Monarchy practically impossible. I have a right to say this because, though possessing a majority and actual force, they have not done what they reproached me for not doing. Well, since Monarchy is out of the question, it is necessary to have the Republic—a wise and well-ordered, but frank and sincere Republic, called by its proper name that it may not be despised beforehand as a falsehood."

The temper of the country was further tested by three sets of elections, which came on before the winter meeting of the Assembly. These were—first, the elections to the Councils-General throughout the country; secondly, the six still outstanding departmental elections to the Assembly; thirdly, the municipal elections, or choice of civic councillors, nearly 430,000 in number, for the 36,000 Communes of France.

The elections to the Councils-General came on on October 1. Properly speaking, the Councils-General were not supposed to be political bodies. Men of honourable position and practical habits were to administer local affairs without troubling themselves about the general destinies of the State; and it was a natural consequence that social importance came to be very much a test of

eligibility for the office of Councillor. In 1874 party feeling had come to sway these elections, as well as others more directly political; but the previous bias had assured a certain weight to Conservative influences, and accordingly the result of the October suffrage of 1874 was relatively rather than directly indicative of the tendency of opinion. Of the two main divisions of party each in fact claimed to be satisfied. Out of the 1,400 seats to be filled, the anti-Republicans, according to their most moderate computation, made a gain by twenty-one; the Republicans, on the other hand, asserted a small gain on their side. But, as between the Monarchists of different shades, the profit was clearly for the Bonapartist side. The Legitimists and Orleanists, as such, confessed themselves disappointed. The most noticeable incident of the elections was the contest for Corsica, which brought face to face two rival members of the Imperial family—Prince Napoleon Jerome and Prince Charles Bonaparte. Each claimed to represent the canton of Ajaccio; and the former supported his cause by the publication of letters formerly addressed to him by the late Emperor, and recognising him as an official candidate. To counteract this move Prince Charles put forward a letter written by the Prince Imperial to M. Piétri, ex-Prefect of Police, in these terms: “I think it well that you should go to Ajaccio to support my cousin, Prince Charles Napoleon, as a candidate for the *Conseil-Général* of Corsica. Your presence, by showing what my sentiments are, will tend to maintain that moderation and calmness among the population which I wish always to be preserved. You had the Emperor’s confidence. You now possess mine; and I rely on your attachment and zeal to put an end to uncertainties.”

The selection of Prince Charles, who was a brother of Cardinal Bonaparte, was made by the Empress Eugénie under the advice of M. Rouher, and was mainly due to her anxiety to obtain for her son the support of the clerical party throughout France. The contest was lively. Two Bonapartist journals, *L’Écho d’Ajaccio* and *Le Patriote de la Corse*, respectively trumpeted the claims of the rival cousins. Eventually, by a large majority, Prince Charles was returned; and the ascendancy of the elder branch of the Imperial House over its rebellious scion was thus confirmed. Of the departmental elections to the Assembly, three took place on October 18; three more early in November. In the Seine et Oise the Imperialist candidate was the Duc de Padoue, a former Minister of Napoleon III., the same personage who had taken a leading part in the pilgrimage to Chiselhurst on the occasion of the Prince Imperial’s birthday. He now took the opportunity to remind the electors of his services on that occasion; and was audacious enough to promise them that at the end of the Septennate, if not, indeed, sooner, Napoleon IV. would be seated on the throne of his father. Moreover, he urged the Mayors of the Department not to heed the directions of the Prefect in the coming election; quoting as against that officer some words that he alleged Marshal MacMahon to have uttered to him—

self on the neutrality exacted from all Mayors, an offence for which Government decided on at once revoking his own appointment of Mayor of Courson D'Aulnay. When the election came on he was beaten; but that he had managed to gain as many as 45,000 votes against 60,000 of M. Lenard, the Republican candidate, was, under the circumstances of his own position and of the Republican character of the Department, an encouraging fact for his party.

The other election of most interest was that of M. Delisse Engrand in the Pas de Calais. It had to go through the process of a second balloting, the majority for M. Delisse Engrand not being sufficient as against the other two candidates in the first instance. The newly elected Deputy was of the Bonapartist faction, though more loyal to the Septennate than the Duc de Padoue had professed to be; and on the whole, though in the general result of these autumn elections, the Republicans had the most positive success, yet, relatively, the Imperialists had made an important advance. In the Municipal elections, which came on on November 22, and in Paris a week later, Radicalism was triumphant. For the most part, not only the Conservatives, but the moderate Republicans were driven out of the field. This was especially the case in the great towns. In Paris the Radical triumph was not only great but startling. The voting itself passed off very quietly, and it was not till the newspaper announcement of the next day that people realised the situation. Then, the Conservative journals angrily accused the Parisians of favouring the return of the Commune, while the Republican prints, congratulating the country on what a general election for a new Assembly would have to show, counselled moderation to the more ardent of their party. To the respective successes of Radicalism and Imperialism, the Legitimists had nothing to oppose but hazy hopes and visions; and in the absence of any solid ground for comfort, they sought for a moment to make capital out of a visit which the Prince of Wales paid in the month of October to one of their most conspicuous leaders, the Duc de la Rochefoucauld-Bisaccia. The visit of course had nothing whatever, really, of a political character. It was a visit of private courtesy merely. In its incidents, however, it was sufficiently picturesque to lure us for a moment from the dull narrative of Septennatist politics, to contemplate a revival of the Courtly hospitality of the old *régime*. One of the guests present at the Prince's reception, gave an account of it from which we shall extract some passages.

"On the departure of the late French Ambassador from London, the Prince of Wales, in expressing to the Duc and Duchesse de la Rochefoucauld-Bisaccia the regret he felt at their leaving England, promised to pay them a visit at the Chateau of Esclimont. The Prince even mentioned October 15 as the date of the visit, and with the punctuality characteristic of the courtesy of Royal personages, His Royal Highness arrived on the very day which he had indicated several months beforehand. The Prince had expressed

a desire on several occasions that his reception should be devoid of all ostentation, his visit being to see the life of a French Grand Seigneur under its habitual aspect. The Duke and Duchess, in order to carry out this wish, which they regarded as a command, contented themselves with inviting some friends whom they thought the Prince would like to meet. On the 15th inst., accordingly, a special train, by the favour of the Western Railway Company, was placed by the Duke at the Prince's service, and by four o'clock he had reached Rambouillet, where the Duke was waiting to receive him.

"The Château of Esclimont dates from the Renaissance. It was restored with great ability in 1864 by M. Henri Parent, under the direction of the Duke, who is a man of taste, possesses a love of art, and is well known in France for his skill in the direction of such works. The Château is surrounded by a wide moat, and is flanked with six towers and several turrets. The keep, which is mediæval, serves as the first portico, and is flanked with four turrets. A broad river runs through the park. From the windows of the Château a wide expanse of green sward is visible, in which herds of deer roam at large, separated, however, from the rest of the park by a wire fence. On the eminences to the right and left are venerable oaks and other fine trees. The stables are very fine, and the dairy is a real gem, the walls being of porcelain, and exciting universal admiration. The magnificent weather had preserved all the beauty of the flowers, and the lawn was as green as any English turf.

"On Friday, breakfast was served at ten o'clock, and the most elegant equipages conveyed the distinguished persons invited by the Duke, to the scene of the sport. It was a little disturbed by the inhabitants of the country, who gathered to do honour to the Prince, and mixed with the sportsmen; but, in spite of this little incident, 500 birds were brought down, everybody noticing the ease and precision with which the Prince shot. Lunch was served at two o'clock in a marquee which served as the rendezvous for the shooting, and where the Duchess and other ladies joined the sportsmen. There was to have been dancing in the evening, but it was recollected that the day was the anniversary of the death of Queen Marie Antoinette, and the ball was consequently postponed till Saturday. On Saturday there was some capital shooting, and after dinner, dancing was kept up till 3 A.M. On Sunday the Duke and Duchess and their friends escorted the Prince to the fine Château of Dampierre, the residence of the young Duchesse de Luynes, the Duke's daughter, whose husband fell on the field of Patay. The Duchess, with her two young children, received the Prince at the entrance. The Château, the residence of the Luynes family, is rich in art and other treasures. On visiting the library, His Royal Highness was shown the correspondence of Louis XIV. and Colbert. He was much interested with the Château, and cordially appreciated the reception given him by the

Duchess, who had abandoned her solitude for a moment for the honour of receiving the Prince who was her father's guest. After a walk in the splendid park, the Duc and Duchesse de la Rochefoucauld-Bisaccia conducted His Royal Highness to Rambouillet, the seat of their friends the Duc and Duchesse de la Tremouille, where the Prince was to spend two days, and where they were also to be guests. Rambouillet is celebrated as the scene of the death of Francis I., and as the residence of the Count of Toulouse, as also for the visit paid to it by Charles X. It is not architecturally remarkable, but, thanks to the taste of the Duc and Duchesse de la Tremouille, it is elegantly fitted up, and has some beautiful wainscoting. The park, too, is very fine. On Monday the Duc de la Rochefoucauld-Bisaccia, the Duc de la Tremouille, and the Marquis de Lau, the Barons Soubeyran and Hottinguer, offered the Prince some shooting, and, despite the wretched weather, 1,200 birds were shot, including 1,100 pheasants. His Royal Highness brought down nearly 300. The next day there was rabbit shooting, and at 6 p.m. the Prince departed, leaving the most favourable impression on all who had the pleasure and honour of making his acquaintance."

After taking leave of the Duc de la Rochefoucauld-Bisaccia, the Prince of Wales visited the Duc d'Aumale at Chantilly. On arriving at this famed historic seat, the Prince was received by the Duc d'Aumale and drove to the grand stable, where nearly a couple of centuries ago the Prince de Condé, the victor of Rocroy, had entertained the Czar Peter the Great. The approaches to the stables were lined by English trainers and jockeys, of whom there is a veritable colony at Chantilly, who greeted the Prince on his arrival with a loud hurrah. Having inspected the stables, he drove to the Faisanderie, where, after *déjeuner*, the shooting commenced. In the evening there was a banquet at the Château, and on the morrow a stag-hunt in the forest. The Prince returned late in the afternoon to Paris, dining at the Jockey Club; and on the following day he accompanied Marshal MacMahon to the Marly preserves, where there was capital sport. On Saturday the Prince made an excursion to the Duc de Mouchy's and the Prince de Sagan's châteaux, situated north of Paris, taking *déjeuner* at the one and dining at the other. On Monday he went to meet the Princess of Wales on her arrival from Copenhagen, and returned to England.

The course of foreign politics during the recess was marked by two diplomatic transactions—the Spanish Note and its consequences, and the recall of the "Orénoque." To explain the former we must go back to the month of July, when the Spanish Government made a complaint to the French Minister for Foreign Affairs of the secret encouragement given to Carlism on the northern side of the Pyrenees. That the Carlist cause was in principle the same with the Legitimist cause, and that the Ultramontane party both in France and Spain identified their hopes with the success of the

two Pretenders, was notorious; that the existing French Government, not finding it convenient to break with the Extreme Right might find it advisable to give underhand countenance to the enterprise of the Spanish Bourbon, was presumable, and seemed to be borne out by facts. The Government of Marshal Serrano asserted that while Carlism was feeble and forced to hide its head in the mountains, it was on the French side of the frontier that the leaders found a refuge: that there they laid their plans, thence communicated with the disaffected peasantry of Guipuzcoa and Navarre, then sallied out when the time was ripe, almost without concealment, to place themselves at the head of the rebellion: that Don Carlos himself had been allowed to take up his abode in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, though the object of his residence there must have been known to every official of the French Government: that when his presence was thought to be needed, he passed unmolested into Spain, and since that time there had been a constant stream of Carlist traffic to and fro across the border: that contracts for the supply of arms and munitions of war had been arranged between the Carlist leaders and French or foreign contractors on French soil, and that these contracts had been carried out with little or no attempt on the part of the French Government to interfere with them.

The Duc Decazes instituted an inquiry into the circumstances, exposed the futility of the statements, and denied that the French Administration was in any way inculpated in any irregularities that might have taken place across the border. There, for a time, the matter rested; and the recognition of the Government seated at Madrid, by the French Government, which took place soon afterwards, at the instance of Germany, seemed to place the respective Presidencies of Marshals MacMahon and Serrano on a sufficiently cordial footing.

But in October, the old complaints began again. The Marquis de la Vega Armijo, the Spanish Ambassador at Paris, presented a remonstrance at the failure of the French Government to observe the obligations of neutrality towards Spain, though courteously assuming that the fault lay with subordinate officials, not with Ministerial animus. He reminded the Duc Decazes of the repeated engagements which had been entered into for regulating the relations of France towards the Spanish Government and the Carlists, and insisted that these engagements had been broken by the direct acts or the supine and studied indifference of the Prefects and lesser officials of the frontier departments of Southern France. He was careful to point out that he "would have a perfect right to cast the responsibility of all that is happening, not upon the agents of the French Government, but upon that Government itself." This, however, he stopped short of doing, though an intimation was not obscurely conveyed that if the present remonstrance should produce no satisfactory results, the Sovereign Power which permitted its officers to injure a friendly State could

not be shielded from the consequences of such laxity by smooth and unsubstantial professions of good faith and goodwill.

This was hardly a pleasant note for a French Minister to receive. It was not only Spain, however, but Germany that France had to take into her reckoning when she had to define her position towards Carlist and Ultramontane intrigues; and accordingly, the Duc Decazes, acknowledging the receipt of the remonstrance in a short but polite rejoinder, promised a more detailed answer when he should have gone into all the explicit charges with full examination. This answer was drawn up and forwarded to the Spanish Government in December.

Neither was the affair of the "Orénoque" altogether pleasing to French national vanity, though, properly considered, it was neither a detrimental nor humiliating step to withdraw from Italian waters the bodily presence of the frigate that had symbolised the intervention policy of Napoleon III. when that sovereign took upon himself to maintain the Pope's temporal sovereignty at Rome as against the possible designs of the new Italian Kingdom. Napoleon and his policy had fallen at Sedan; the Pope was master in the Vatican only; the French flag on the "Orénoque" was to the Italians an irritating protest which could have no practical meaning; but it was an irritating protest, and they pressed mildly but firmly on the Government of Marshal MacMahon to withdraw it. The French Ministers had no reason to give for refusal. They only begged that they might put off action till the Parliamentary recess should enable them to do the required deed quietly and without discussion; and, in effect, on October 12 the "Orénoque" was recalled from its moorings at Civita Vecchia. The only compromise with which the French Government sought to cover its dignity was the appointment of another vessel, the "Kléber," to be stationed at Ajaccio, off the coast of Corsica, with the avowed purpose of aiding the Pontiff to leave Rome should stress of circumstances ever induce him to do so.

The Duc Decazes' explanations of these two diplomatic transactions were looked for with some interest at the meeting of the Permanent Committee of the Assembly on October 15. On the whole, public feeling was soothed by his statements. With regard to the Spanish note, he deprecated an exaggerated estimate of the gravity of the matter. The facts, he urged, should be reduced to their true proportions. The Spanish Government had complained some months ago of the way in which the frontier was watched by the French authorities. In reply to that despatch he had explained how the case really stood. After a long silence, the Spanish Government had now presented a long statement, comprising all the complaints it believed itself to be entitled to urge since the outbreak of the Civil War. There was nothing offensive in the terms of this Note. The niceties of the French language were not familiar to foreigners, and if certain expressions seemed open to exception they must be attributed to this cause. He denied

that the note had the threatening character which had been ascribed to it. It could have no serious consequences. Its only result would be the proof of the vigilance and loyalty with which France had for four years fulfilled its international obligations as regarded the surveillance of the frontier. M. de la Boullerie expressed surprise at the view taken of the Note by the Foreign Minister, saying that it seemed to him to possess considerable gravity, and was calculated to give uneasiness to all who were jealous of the dignity of France. This was the way in which Spain had shown its gratitude for recognition. Alluding to the recall of the "Orénoque," he said Catholics strongly condemned this measure; and he asked whether it was the result of a policy spontaneously adopted, or of foreign pressure. The Duc Decazes replied that, in advising the Cabinet to take this step, of which he was willing to bear the entire responsibility, he had consulted the interests and dignity of France. It would be for the Assembly to approve or censure the measure, and it would be useless to discuss it before the Committee, which could come to no decision upon it. Meanwhile he was happy to think that His Holiness took a very different view of the matter from that expressed by M. de la Boullerie.

And now as the day approached for the meeting of the Assembly (November 30), speculation was rife as to the party shiftings and alliances which the benches of Versailles would exhibit. What was most talked of was an alliance between the Right and Left Centres; in other words, between the Orleanists, or friends of Constitutional Monarchy, and the Conservative Republicans. On the three extreme parties—the Legitimists, Radicals, and Bonapartists—the period of the Assembly's recess had worked no change. They stood much in the positions they had occupied when that body separated in the summer. The Legitimists were as fixed as ever to resist every settlement that implied abandonment or postponement of the Comte de Chambord's restoration. The Radicals, with difficulty held in hand by Gambetta, were acting or feigning moderation. The Bonapartists were perfectly satisfied with the tendency of events, and convinced that for their purposes, at present, the Marshalate was the best of all possible Governments. But the Centres were each threatened with an internal schism, as their members tended more towards one or other of the extremes; and the question now seemed to be whether a new amalgamation of their elements could not be brought to bear, and whether moderate men in the Assembly, and in France, could not combine into one great party capable of governing the country. This had been the desire of M. Thiers, and afterwards of the Duc de Broglie, but hitherto no terms of compromise had been found successful.

The Assembly met for its winter session on November 30. Not till three days later, the Presidential Message was read by General de Cissey, as chief of the Cabinet. But the Comte de Chambord had been beforehand with instructions to his adherents.

On December 1, M. de la Rochette communicated to a meeting of the Extreme Right, a letter which had been addressed to him by the Prince, expressing his desire that no consent should be given to any legislative measures calculated to delay the restoration of the Monarchy. "Tell your friends," he said, "that we desire that no obstacle be offered to the personal consolidation of the Marshal's powers. If dictatorial powers are necessary for him, let them be granted; but we wish no measure, no law, of whatever kind, to be voted which, giving the Septennate an impersonal character, might retard or prevent the accession of the legitimate Monarchy." This letter in effect caused the postponement of the Marshal's Message, as it embarrassed the position of those two of his Ministers who entertained Legitimist proclivities, and rendered it necessary to recast the terms of the document.

The Message, when finally put forth, amounted, it was commonly said, to just the old story, "*J'y suis, et j'y reste.*" After reviewing with satisfaction the political, commercial, and financial state of the country, the Marshal said:—"In travelling through some of our departments, I have everywhere noticed the manifestation of a love of order, and, with the need of peace and security, the desire that an organisation admitted by you to be indispensable should give the power created by the law of November 20 the strength it requires to fulfil the mission which you have entrusted to it. Unceasingly agitated by the propagation of the most pernicious doctrines, the country asks you to ensure the procedure of the Government which is to protect it with your assistance, and by measures of wise foresight to guarantee, during that period of stability which you have promised to France, the regular working of the public power. You will, I trust, come to an agreement on the important questions which you are about to discuss. I shall not decline my share of the responsibility, and the intervention of my Government shall not be wanting. But I am anxious to let you know at once how I understand my duty towards the Assembly and the country. I did not take power in order to serve the aspirations of any party. I am here only as a means of social defence and national recovery. I call to aid me in this work, without any spirit of exclusion, all men of goodwill—all those who subordinate their personal preferences to the necessity of the present time and the sacred cause of the country. I ardently desire that the co-operation of none of them may fail me. I claim it in the name of France, whose safety and grandeur I have alone in view. But in any case nothing will discourage me from accomplishing my task. On November 20, 1873, in the interest of peace, order, and public security, you entrusted me for seven years with the Executive Power. The same interest makes it a duty for me not to desert the post in which you have placed me, and to occupy it until the last day with immutable firmness and scrupulous respect for the law."

The Message was received with satisfaction by most men of

moderate views; it was not too decided, or too compromising. But the *République Française* (M. Gambetta's organ) blamed its reticence, and said:—"We cannot live any longer between an Executive Power which is afraid to speak and a Constituent Power which is afraid to act. Six months ago the President of the Republic said in a Message, which that of yesterday will not cause to be forgotten, that this provisional situation was intolerable. The time which has still elapsed has made it still more intolerable, and what is to be noticed above everything is that in the presence of an impotent Assembly and this hesitating Government, which avoids public opinion, the country asserts, more and more energetically, its Republican conviction and will. For three years the patience of France has been tried. Has not the time come to leave it to itself?"

The *Bien Public* (the organ of M. Thiers) summed up its opinion in the following words:—"Whether the Message be considered from the Assembly's point of view or from that of the country, it seems to break down against a double impossibility. It claims from the Assembly more than the Assembly seems inclined to grant; it offers the country less than the country demands."

The *France* (M. Émile de Girardin's last new journal) looked upon the official utterance as the confirmation of its own programme, and said it was clear that the Marshal had abandoned the much talked of Constitutional laws.

And, in effect, up to the 24th, the day on which the Assembly adjourned for its Christmas holiday, no discussions on the main political questions of the day were attempted. During the late recess there had been talk of calling the Government to account for the state of siege, for the treatment of the Press, for its attitude in the elections, for the recall of the "Orénoque," for its relations with Spain; but it seemed that by general consent the fervour for interpellations had subsided, and that it was thought better, for a time at least, to avoid exciting the public mind.

The only discussion which did agitate the Assembly during this interval was one on a subject alien from its usual deliberations of late. It was on the condition of University education in France. The Bill was framed by the Comte de Jaubert, in the interests of the clerical party, and had for its object to abolish the State monopoly of instruction in the great educational system known as the "University of France," and created by Napoleon I. M. Paul Bert, a professor, advocating reform, but not in the direction of clericalism, dwelt on the impoverishment of the University, and the depressing monotony of its teaching; the effects of its exclusive dependence on the State. The buildings, he said, were most inadequate, the collections and libraries poor, and laboratories deficient—only 65 fr. a year being allowed by the State for firing and the purchase of books. Even in Paris, he said, the Sorbonne collections are quartered in houses bought by the municipality on

account of their dilapidated state for the purpose of being pulled down, and the laboratories have been described by M. Claude Bernard, whose serious illness was near giving practical proof of his remark, as the graves of the *savants*. The College de France has been obliged, for want of accommodation and funds, to refuse the valuable geological collection bequeathed to it by the late Elie de Beaumont. Its collections are stowed away so as to be unavailable, and it has no libraries. A distinguished professor of physiology was allowed only 200 fr. per annum for laboratory expenses, which were necessarily heavy. The forty-three Faculties, scattered over twenty-five or twenty-six French towns, consist of only four or five professors each, who in two years are expected to teach everything in the domain of science and letters. They have no interest in the numbers of their classes, and the natural result is that they are unable to obtain an audience for scientific lectures; while *belles lettres* attract only a handful, the legal and medical professors alone having a fair number of auditors. The stipends are only from 3,000 fr. to 5,000 fr., and even in Paris, at the College de France, the *maximum* is 7,500 fr.—a poor inducement for young men of promise to accept professorships. Except in Paris, and there only outside the Faculties, there are no chairs of comparative philology, epigraphy, archæology, or palæontology. The professors, moreover, are subject to deposition at the caprice of the Government. After the Restoration, Guizot, Bavoux, and eleven medical professors were dismissed. Michelet and Edgar Quinet, the latter a member of the present Assembly, shared the same fate. And, more recently, M. Renan was superseded for denying the divinity of Christ, and was succeeded by a Jew, who, as M. Bert remarked, if he had touched on the same question would probably have expressed the same opinion with greater emphasis. He complained that the system produces a uniformity of tone and sentiment, that new ideas are proscribed, that precisely the same teaching is given at Rennes, Toulouse, and Lyons, without any consideration for diversities of race, manners, and climate, Napoleon's view of a University, as intended to regulate the principles of morality and politics, and Fontaine's conception of it, as a guarantee against theories subversive of social order, whether in one extreme or another, being still more or less prevalent. He deprecated competition in the matter of education, apprehending that mutual rivalry and the impatience of parents and students would result in a system of cramming so carefully devised that the examiners, even if appointed by the State, would be compelled to grant diplomas to young men, who would immediately forget their hastily acquired knowledge. He deprecated, also, the creation of sectarian Universities, whose professors would be blind advocates of particular systems, and whose students, never brought into contact in their academical career, would be brought up in different schools of thought; and considered that the German Universities, with their variety of teaching and their

self-government, should be taken as a model, offering as they do liberty for the student in choosing a professor, and liberty for the latter in expounding his opinions. His proposal was that four large provincial Universities should be created, the small Faculties scattered in various towns being grouped round them; that they should be self-governed, or, as a transitional measure, should have a voice in the nomination of professors, and that the State should grant them a temporary subvention in case they should require it.

M. Laboulaye, of the Left Centre, maintained that liberty of teaching and a reform of existing institutions were distinct questions. He was convinced that competition would be a leverage for reform; and scouted the possibility of the science having an orthodox or heterodox impress in rival Universities. As to young men being trained in opposite schools of thought and never brought into contact, he urged that this objection would apply with greater force to the existing secondary teaching given at an age when the mind is plastic, whereas youths of eighteen have generally formed their opinions.

The discussion of the 4th, confined to members of the Left Centre, was more argumentative than rhetorical, and only guarded allusions were made to the Ultramontane aspect of the question; but the next day there was less reticence, and the debate was very warm. The Bishop of Orleans vigorously denounced M. Bert's proposal for a fair field and no favour for all opinions, leaving the common law to punish illegal or immoral doctrines, and trusting to the common sense of students to desert the exponents of absurd theories. He declared this to be a detestable sophism, and frankly confessed that the liberty of teaching which he advocated differed from that demanded by M. Bert. In deprecating the notion of exposing defenceless youth to such seductions, he cited the maxim "*Maxima debetur pueris reverentia.*" He quoted several authorities in proof that centralisation and monopoly were the cause of the decadence of superior instruction, and that liberty was the only remedy. Admitting that some of the Professors of free Universities would be ecclesiastics, "What a misfortune," he ironically exclaimed, "if they teach well!" He mentioned an array of names of ecclesiastics distinguished in science and letters, denied that it was sought to substitute one monopoly for another, and maintained that the only desire was to raise the standard of instruction by emulation. The Church, he insisted—the founder of twenty-three independent Universities in France—had always advocated liberty of teaching, which existed under the *Ancien Régime*, and was not, as M. Bert alleged, created by the Convention. He urged the special importance in a Democratic society of cultivating advanced studies and of keeping up the standard of intelligence; for the wider the basis of society, the more necessary it was that the summit should not be lowered. He mentioned the number of Universities in Great Britain, Belgium, and Germany, as also in the States of the Church under

their much calumniated Government. A lover of studious, but not seditious youth, he deplored the paucity of students even where there were Professors, and trusted to liberty and emulation to rekindle the flame of knowledge extinguished by the Revolution. He urged that the efforts of all were needed, that private effort should supplement State grants, and that all right-minded men should co-operate in a work which God would bless for the resurrection and future of France.

M. Challemeil-Lacour, in opposing the Bishop, maintained that though the liberty of teaching would ostensibly be enjoyed by all, the Church was the only party which could take advantage of it. In a country subject to repressive laws, and under a Government apparently resolved to undermine all liberties and keep citizens in a state of isolation, no lay schools could profit by it. The only association which could exercise this liberty was the Church—free, rich, powerful, and never satisfied; and Monseigneur Dupanloup's ardent support of the Bill proved this. The Golden Age was doubtless expected to return, when there would be one Church, one Faith, and one Baptism; but the result might be to widen the breach, and to create two irreconcilable sections; whereas the union of the middle classes was the strength of a country, and their division perilous to society. He had no fear of science or even history being seriously injured by a sectarian tinge; but he deprecated the withdrawal from social influences of young men destined for the liberal professions and the magistracies, who would thus be made zealots and apostles. Such a *militia*, far from conquering the world, would intensify antagonism, and, perhaps, bring about cataclysms. The Clergy disclaimed, indeed, any designs on civil liberties or any thought of regaining their ascendancy; but in their books and newspapers they waged a bitter war against the principles of the French Revolution, which, as Monseigneur Dupanloup had acknowledged, were condemned by the Syllabus. Not only in Germany and Italy was a struggle going on between the lay and the Catholic spirit, but even in England, where Mr. Gladstone had recently raised a cry of alarm. Was it prudent for France, which was not sure of having disarmed all ill-will—for a vanquished people whose independence was still precarious—to become the vanguard of a Catholic restoration? The Bill was fraught with domestic and external perils. M. Galloni d'Istria interrupted, "You are appealing to Bismarck!" M. Challemeil-Lacour exclaimed, "It is M. Galloni, a Bonapartist, who interrupted me." He concluded by appealing to a future more Liberal Assembly for a settlement of the question. M. Laboulaye, endeavouring to allay the excitement, deprecated the converting this Bill into a battle-field between the Church and free thought, and appealed to the School of Political Sciences at Paris, and to M. de Pressensé's Protestant classes to show that the liberty claimed would not be confined to one party. The Syllabus had not prevented the Belgian Catholics from being as liberal as others. As to the attitude of

France towards Germany, it was an appeal to repression and silence; and its authors could no longer call themselves Liberals. The only means of reconciling the Clergy with modern liberty was to give them liberty. M. Laboulaye was loudly cheered by the Right. There was a call for the *cloture*, but M. Bardoux claimed a hearing as a Liberal advocating liberty of teaching, but not of conferring degrees, and the debate was adjourned.

At the next sitting Monseigneur Dupanloup complained that M. Challemel-Lacour, in his speech of the previous day, had wandered from the subject by putting the Catholic Clergy on their trial and representing them as the enemies of their country and its institutions; sowing discord at home and exciting prejudices against France abroad. He had spoken of them as they were spoken of in 1793. The Right applauded these words, while the Left loudly protested, M. Jules Simon charging the Bishop with exaggeration, and M. de Pressensé, of the Left Centre, exclaiming, "You want to make us vote against a Bill the principle of which we accept." The Comte de Resseguier rejoined, "Vote against it; we ask for nothing better." Monseigneur Dupanloup admitted that he had himself spoken with severity of revolutionists; but he remarked that they did not like the Clergy to wear a dress which exposed them to the violence of the mob, and that in the event of a successful outbreak, the rioters would never mistake him for M. Challemel-Lacour, or *vice versa*. After great uproar, which the President was for some time unable to quell, Monseigneur Dupanloup twitted the Liberals with being afraid of liberty, with dreading an educational competition with the priesthood, and with despairing of the confidence of fathers of families. In Belgium, he remarked, one Catholic University successfully competed with three other establishments; and were Count Felix de Mérode present he would not term the opponents of the Bill *Liberaux*, but *Liberutres*, just as a profligate mother was not called a "*Mère*," but a "*Marâtre*." Turning to the Syllabus, he told the Extreme Left they did not understand its bearing or its value, and that when ten years ago the editor of the most literary journal in France had made a translation of it, he had himself detected seventy-three blunders in that translation. Even M. Challemel-Lacour had not understood, because he could not translate it. It was a theological document; and theology, like every science, had a terminology of its own. Dealing with the allegation that the Syllabus condemns modern institutions, he cited the following passage from an interpretation published under the eyes of the Pope in the *Civiltà Cattolica*:—

"Modern liberties, considered as institutions adapted to the constitutions and necessities of particular peoples, Catholics can not only accept, but cherish and defend; and they perform a good and worthy work when they employ them as effectively as they can in the service of truth and justice."

Denying that Catholicism imperilled society, he declared that

the danger proceeded from Atheism and Materialism, which were raising their heads higher than ever; and he quoted a newspaper, published in 1871, which avowed that the Paris Revolution was atheistical, that it expunged God, and that no voice would curse the day when the Archbishop of Paris was shot.

The reading of this passage provoked a tumultuous scene. The name of the paper was demanded, and M. le Royer denied that the article was printed in France; but Monseigneur Dupanloup stated that it appeared at Paris under the Commune. He would mention the name privately, but would not publicly, as he was not an informer. M. de Lacretelle exclaimed, "We cannot allow ourselves to be accused of Atheism;" and M. Gambetta insisted that such a document could not be laid to the charge of any party without stating whence it emanated. The President, however, said the Bishop had not laid it to the charge of any party represented in the Chamber, and threatened to order the members collected near the Tribune to resume their seats unless they desisted from interfering. The name being still called for, on the ground that it was the country which wanted the information, the President said he should call those who interrupted to order. M. Gambetta asked, "*Sont cela des procédés d'argumentation?*" on which the Comte Resseguier, turning to the Left said, "*Fusiller les archevêques c'est un procédé sans doute.*" M. Gambetta rejoined that the Right would not like to have quotations of such a kind cast at them. The President said he should call M. Gambetta to order if he continued to interrupt. As soon as there was a lull Monseigneur Dupanloup said he could make other quotations which would startle his opponents; and he added that in theses supported before the Academy of Medicine, moral liberty and responsibility were denied, and it was affirmed that in trials for murder the criminals were not the murderers, but the judges who condemned them. At this there were fresh calls for the name, whereupon the speaker offered to lend the thesis to any Deputy desiring to read it. The President rang his bell energetically, protesting that liberty of speech was attacked by such clamour, and that quotations were frequently made without giving the name. The excitement continued.

M. de la Borderie, of the Right Centre, called on the Radicals to disavow the Commune once for all. M. Tolain declared that the Radical party was being calumniated, but the President said the Bishop was justified in applying these principles to those who had put them in practice. On comparative silence being restored, Monseigneur Dupanloup said he did not wish to irritate his opponents. He was not much afraid of doing so. As to the charge of fomenting discord and division, "Never," he exclaimed, amid the cheers of the Right, "will we let the Atheists and Materialists speak without replying to them." M. Challemel-Lacour, in a brief reply, declined to retract or modify his late speech. He maintained that his construction of the Syllabus—of which there

existed an official French translation—was that of all intelligent Europe, and that no episcopal interpretation could override its natural and obvious meaning. As concerned himself personally, the Bishop's position and the robe he wore, and of which he had spoken, prevented him from replying as he might otherwise have done. The Bishop's construction of his speech and commentaries on it, he left to the judgment of all sensible men in the Assembly, of all sensible people outside, and of all those who had still some regard for the dignity of the Episcopate. This speech was received with murmurs and interruptions by the Right, and cheers by a portion of the Left. The President remarked that Bishop Dupanloup, one of the glories of the French Episcopate, was among those who had the greatest regard for the dignity of his order. After a speech from M. Bardoux, in defence of the State monopoly of conferring degrees, M. Louis Blanc said the question was whether liberty of teaching should be adopted before obtaining all the other liberties which were its natural complement, and would prevent its becoming a monopoly in favour of certain doctrines. With liberty of the Press and of public meetings, there was no fear that in an equal struggle Reason would succumb. Truth would know its own. The First Reading was then carried by 531 to 124.

A few days later, the debate on the Clauses came on. M. Jean Brunet demanded, as the sole guarantee of those who wished to open a free school of superior teaching, the recognition of a Supreme Being—an amendment almost unanimously rejected. The real discussion was raised by M. Henri Fournier, one of the authors of an amendment to Clause 2, to which the Committee objected. Clause 2, as adopted and submitted by the Committee, was in these terms:—

“Every Frenchman of full age, free from the disqualifications described in Clause 7 of the present Bill, or Associations formed for the purpose of superior teaching, in conformity with Clause 9, or Departments and Communes, may freely open courses and establishments of superior instruction under the conditions prescribed in the following Clauses.”

M. Fournier's Amendment, which was much applauded by the Right, required that these establishments be managed by three directors, that a previous declaration be deposited, and that other regulations be adopted which suppress the right accorded by Clause 2 to the individual associations being substituted. It was opposed in a remarkable speech by M. Laboulaye, who showed that M. Fournier distrusted individuals and wished to favour associations. He plainly insinuated that the chief object of the Amendment was to divide the liberty of teaching between the State and certain Corporations. “We wished,” he exclaimed, in conclusion, “to pass a law of liberty, but of liberty for all. Outside of this liberty we wish only for the supremacy of the State.” M. de Cumont, who followed M. Laboulaye, seemed to think the

Amendment went too far; and while demanding more substantial guarantees than those proposed by the Committee, he did not insist on the Amendment being referred to that body. The Left committed a mistake in not recognising M. de Cumont's comparative Liberalism, instead of interrupting him with incessant clamour. This attitude induced all the Right to support the Amendment; and M. Desjardins, Secretary-General of the Department of Public Instruction, inspired by this feeling on their part, ascended the Tribune and advocated the reference of it to the Committee. After two indecisive divisions by rising and sitting, the ballot was taken, and the Amendment was referred to the Committee by 350 to 325.

This decision removed from the Bill the last trace of a Liberal tendency; and it may be inferred that if the measure is reconsidered by a fuller House, it will encounter the defeat which has been predicted for it. The interesting feature of the discussion was the changed attitude imposed on M. Laboulaye, the Reporter on the Bill, who had hitherto defended it, amid the applause of the Left, advocating a Liberal principle against the Right. The reference of the Amendment to the Committee delayed the resumption of the discussion on the Bill.

On the 11th the National Assembly passed, with the acquiescence of the Government, the first reading of a Bill proposed by M. de Pressensé, the well-known Protestant Minister, and several of his colleagues, relating to the right of meeting for the celebration of religious worship. After M. Griaud, a member of the Extreme Right, had spoken against the measure, dwelling on the numerous excesses which had been committed in religious meetings and the danger which the non-intervention of the State presented to morality, M. de Pressensé made an eloquent speech in support of it. Recalling the Revolution of 1789, he said that it committed a great fault in organising the Civil Constitution of the Clergy; but when the question was brought before the *Constituante* the right of worship was granted to all religious sects. In 1792 the *Constituante* recognised every religious sect, and even consecrated the separation of Church and State; and immediately public worship organised itself in 32,000 parishes. After tracing the fate of French religious sects down to the Revolution of 1848, the *Coup d'Etat*, and the Empire, which re-established the authority of the State over the Church, he declared that liberty of worship did not exist in France as it was understood by Berryer, Montalembert, and the present Duc de Broglie's father. He observed that a very great struggle had now begun in Europe between the State and religious conscience, and that this terrible conflict existed not only in Monarchical, but also in Democratical countries. In concluding, he energetically protested against the intrusion of the State in matters of conscience, and declared that all those who, like himself, did not belong to a religion which was being at this very moment persecuted by a mighty State, were the

first to protest against any interference. There was great applause on the Liberal side of the House, when the orator quitted the Tribune.

The only other transactions in the Assembly before Christmas worth mentioning, are the passing of a Bill subjecting to military service foreigners born in France who should not have served in the army of their own country: and a discussion on the Report regarding the late election of M. de Bourgoing, the Bonapartist deputy, in the department of the Nièvre. The Report proposed the postponement of any decision on the subject of the election until more light should have been thrown on the proceedings by means of a Parliamentary inquiry. The Minister of Justice stated that the Government would hold aloof from the discussion, neither contradicting nor supporting the conclusions of the Report, and merely reserving to itself the right of explaining its views when a threatened interpellation by M. Goblet should come on for discussion. The President of the Assembly attempted to put the conclusions of the Report to the vote, but was prevented doing so by loud exclamations from various parts of the House. M. Ricard, a member of the Left Centre, spoke at great length in approval of the Report, severely attacking the manœuvres of the Bonapartists. M. Rouher, who was especially attacked by M. Ricard, then rose, and argued that nothing had been brought forward which could justify the annulment of the election of the Nièvre. That was not the question at issue. It was sought to oppose a Parliamentary enquiry to the judicial investigation which had already taken place regarding alleged Bonapartist Committees, which had resulted in a *nolle prosequi*. He demanded that the inquiry should be extended to the Radical Committees. The circular produced by M. Girard he said was fictitious: an illicit Bonapartist Central Committee did not exist: the nation, if it so desired, would easily enough find a means of establishing the Empire. This speech was listened to with attention by the House, interrupted by protests from the Left. Amid much noise and excitement the Assembly voted in favour of the conclusions of the Report and for the appointment of the Committee of Inquiry; the debate upon M. Goblet's interpellation being adjourned until the conclusion of the Parliamentary inquiry.

Meanwhile the revelations in the Arnim trial which was going on at Berlin, gave French politicians much cause for rumination and self-abasement; though they took care to make mutual re- crimination a still more prominent result. That Prince Bismarck had caused the despatches between himself and his ambassador to be published chiefly for the sake of fomenting divisions in France, was one solution too tempting not to be seized upon, and the *Journal des Débats* thus laid down its exposition of the subject.

"We hear people round us constantly asking for what reason has Prince Bismarck divulged the Diplomatic Despatches read at the Arnim trial. Those who put this question are probably not

accustomed to study the newspapers, and to follow the violent controversies which they carry on among each other. It appears to us that Prince Bismarck's object is easily guessed, for he has completely attained it. The High Chancellor of the German Empire wished, no doubt, to cast a new element of discord among the parties which divide France. His Despatches had the singular advantage of offering everybody such a pretext for combat, that Legitimists, Bonapartists, Republicans, and Radicals have found in them weapons to employ against one another. Count Bismarck—this merit cannot be denied him—knows the French character thoroughly; he knows with what inconceivable thoughtlessness every one of us is ready to accept anything whenever it comes from an arm sufficiently well-tempered to wound his adversary. In this respect we are; alas! the direct descendants of those Gauls of whom Cæsar said, 'It is not only in all their cities, but in all their villages, in the quarters of those villages, and almost in every family, that they form themselves into hostile factions;' and, he adds, that none of these factions hesitated to rely on the foreigner when gaining the ascendancy was in question. We have received, like true sons of the Gauls, M. de Bismarck's dangerous revelations. The Bonapartists, who should have had at least enough shame to keep silence, have hastened to attack the Republicans vehemently. The *Ordre* yesterday published an article entitled 'The Light which comes from the North,' without thinking of the light shed by that luminary on the manœuvres of its fiends. The Monarchists, on the other hand, have exulted over Prince Bismarck's opinion of the Legitimist restoration, as if the appreciations of an enemy could be unreservedly accepted. We should have been glad had the Republicans been wiser, and sought lessons of political dexterity in the Arnim trial, instead of arguments for not very patriotic controversies; but they, too, have preferred the satisfaction of their personal rancour to the great interest of the pacification of Parties. We shall not mix ourselves up in these quarrels, which certainly effect Prince Bismarck's intentions. We have noticed only one thing in the Despatches which have produced so great a sensation—namely, that it is more urgent than ever to unite all the forces of the country round a regular Government, so as to put an end to the unhappy divisions, which for four years have left us isolated in Europe without alliances and without friendships."

The last day of the year witnessed the passing away of a politician whose name had once been a name of power, but had long ceased to be so. M. Ledru-Rollin died suddenly, of heart-disease, at the age of sixty-six. We subjoin a character of him which appeared in the *Pall Mall Gazette*:—

The death of M. Ledru-Rollin removes from the stage of French politics a man who was much more dreaded by his political friends than by his opponents. Whatever fears the Right may have had of the fiery eloquence which more than a quarter of a

century ago pulled down the Throne of July, and summoned the masses of Paris to arms against order and property, were finally dispelled by the exhibition of feebleness which the old revolutionary leader gave last summer when he appeared once more in the Tribune of the National Assembly. It is difficult to understand or explain the influence which M. Ledru-Rollin wielded in 1848. Manifestly he despised and turned away from the practical side of politics; his political style was extremely thin in substance, and his rhetorical graces were of the tawdry sort which positively repel Englishmen. He lived upon the tradition of his oratorical powers, and this source of authority he destroyed when he attempted to renew the magical potency of his eloquence, and to bring under his control a generation that had grown up while he was vegetating in exile, and calumniating the country that protected him. His speech some months ago in defence of universal suffrage and in favour of an immediate dissolution was certainly delivered before an unsympathetic audience; yet the curiosity of Frenchmen overpowered the dislike of the majority, and moved them to give a hearing to opinions which they detested. If M. Ledru-Rollin had still been the orator that had encountered Berryer, not altogether unequally, in the National Assembly of 1848, he would have held his hearers in bonds in spite of the repulsive nature of his doctrines. But a firebrand that will not even glow is intolerable. Men forgot to pronounce any judgment on M. Ledru-Rollin's argument in amazement at discovering that he was dull. This is the unpardonable sin with Frenchmen; and M. Ledru-Rollin at once descended from the pedestal of his traditional authority to the obscurity in which he had lived for more than twenty years. Though this exposure of the flimsy character of M. Ledru-Rollin's claims to the leadership of the Republican party relieved M. Gambetta and the more statesman-like Radicals of the present day from some uneasiness, his name was still dangerously potent with the turbulent classes, and his extravagant doctrines threw discredit on the politicians who could not rid themselves of his alliance. His death marks the decline of the old school of Republican purism, which has done so much mischief to France and to the imitators of France all over the world."

CHAPTER III.

GERMANY.

Prince Bismarck—Elections to *Reichstag*—Debate on General La Marmora's book—Bismarck and the Ultramontanes—Measures against recusant Bishops—Supplementary Church Bills—Meeting of *Reichstag*—Army Bill—Speech of Count von Moltke—Debates on Alsace-Lorraine—Army Bill passed—Prorogation of *Reichstag*—Death of Deputy Mallinckrodt—Attempt on Prince Bismarck's life at Kissingen—Trial of Kullmann—Ecclesiastical prosecutions and contests—Xions' Father Schneider, &c—Bishop Ketteler and the Sedan anniversary—Bishop Martin of Paderborn—Conversion to Romanism of Queen Dowager of Bavaria—Summary of incarcerations and ejections under the Falck Laws—Bismarck's Spanish policy—Reassembling of Diet—Emperor's Speech—*Landsturm* and Bank Bills—Alsace-Lorraine—Parliamentary skirmish of Dec. 4—Bismarck's speech on the Vatican—Arrest and trial of Count Armin—Momentary resignation of Prince Bismarck—His general popularity—Plot against his life.

THE political history of the German Empire this year is to a remarkable degree identical with the personal history of the great statesman who guided her destinies. The war of Bismarck against the Papacy was the key to all the prominent transactions of the time; and his marked individuality of character brought the Chancellor's words and deeds to the front with curious pertinacity; while in other matters also, affecting the interests of the Empire, he contrived to make himself scarcely less conspicuous.

The elections to the Imperial Diet, which were pending when the year commenced, resulted in some disappointment to the Chancellor and his supporters. The high-handed policy towards the Ultramontanes which the Falck Laws had set on foot, alienated the "Social Democrats," whose numbers, trifling in themselves, contributed along with the "Particularists," the Poles and Danes, and some individual Radicals, and so called "Savages" ("Wilden") or Deputies unattached, to swell the ranks of the opponents of the Government, even although the real basis of the opposition was one for which Radicals and Socialists could feel little sympathy. The *Centrum Partei* itself, or Ultramontane section, had increased from sixty-two members to about 100. Altogether the opposition forces might, it was thought, be reckoned at about 170 as against 400 Government supporters. Of other special parties among which the German politicians were distributed, it was remarked that the "National Liberals" had risen from 116 to 150 members; that the "Party of Progress" (*Fortschritts Partei*) had gained four new members; that the Poles remained at their former numbers; that the "Conservatives" and "Free Conservatives"

had lost, while the "Liberal National Party" (*Liberal Reichs Partei*) had vanished altogether, being absorbed into other denominations.

Party warfare began in the Prussian Diet, which was holding its sittings at Berlin before the Imperial Legislature came together.

On January 16, Herr Mallinckrodt, well known as one of the most determined leaders of the Centre Party, and unremitting in his hostility to the Chancellor, came forward with what he hoped would prove a damaging attack on the personal consistency of his great antagonist. The immediate occasion of his onslaught was a debate on an enquiry said to have been instituted by Government into the political opinions of Roman Catholic elementary teachers in a certain district of the Rhineland. It led up to a side blow. "The Rhine country," said Deputy Mallinckrodt, "was one of the most patriotic Provinces, and the elementary teachers there had a right to cherish Ultramontane politics, even though appointed and salaried by Government. What must be the feelings of these devoted patriots on finding themselves coerced by the Cabinet? Were not the Cabinet presided over by a statesman who, when preparing for the Austrian War, told the Italian General Govone that he did not object to give Rhineland up altogether to France as a sop thrown to Cerberus?"

This was a startling allegation, an accusation bearing reference to events which had passed eight years before. Prince Bismarck was not slow to reply to it; and he did so in his usual uncompromising language:—

"I find myself compelled," he said, "to declare that the statement of Herr von Mallinckrodt with reference to an alleged transaction between General Govone and myself is an infamous lie. Of course, it is not Herr von Mallinckrodt who told the lie. Of course, he repeated only a falsehood invented by somebody else. However, as the story has been invented with *malice prepense*, it might perhaps have been expected that Herr von Mallinckrodt would have reflected twice before fathering it. I have never allowed any one to hope that I should be able to bring myself to the cession of a single village or a single acre of land. The fiction circulated at my expense is a downright and daring lie, got up to blacken my reputation in the eyes of my countrymen."

The Prince then referred to some statements made on the previous day in his absence, by Herr Schorlemer Ast, another Ultramontane Deputy, regarding his sanctioning the formation of a Hungarian Legion in 1866 when Prussia was at war with Austria. This story also rested on the assertions of Govone as reported in a work published by the Italian General and late minister, La Marmora, entitled, "*Un po' più di luce*." Such conduct Schorlemer had declared to be unprincipled and revolutionary. Bismarck explained that he had not countenanced the formation of the Legion in the first instance, and had only been induced to sanction it, as he had every right to do, when the probability of

the French Emperor's intervention on the side of Austria threatened to make the war more durable and perilous. He likewise responded to another charge advanced by Herr Schorlemer to the effect that he had been guilty of gross inconsistency, in having formerly acknowledged the necessity of respecting the dogma of infallibility, accepted as it was by millions of Roman Catholics, and now acting contrary to such acknowledgment. Bismarck denied the inconsistency. "Even now," he said, "I acknowledge it as my duty to respect the dogmas of the Catholic Church as dogmas, and I have never interfered with anybody for believing in them. But, if the Infallibility dogma is so interpreted as to lead to the establishment of an ecclesiastical *imperium in imperio*, if it occasions the setting aside of the laws of this country, because unapproved by the Vatican, I am naturally driven to assert the legitimate supremacy of the State. We Protestants are under the conviction that this Kingdom of Prussia ought not to be ruled by the Pope, and we demand that you, the Ultramontane section of the Roman Catholics, respect our convictions, as we do yours. Unfortunately, however, you are accustomed to complain of oppression whenever not permitted to lord it over others."

Herr von Mallinckrodt then reaffirmed the alleged communication to Govone concerning the cession of the Rhenish Province; and said that he had read it in La Marmora's book. "If General La Marmora's statement were now called a lie," he said, "all he (Herr von Mallinckrodt) could do was to transfer the reproach to the author of the book as the party whom it concerned. It would soon be seen whether General La Marmora was in a position to substantiate what he affirmed. As far as he was concerned he would not have repeated the Italian's account of the matter, had it been previously contradicted by Prince Bismarck. As it was he confessed he had believed in it."

Upon this Bismarck rose again. He denounced La Marmora's conduct in publishing and commenting on official documents as he had done in his late work; moreover as regarded himself, with absence of truth; and added:—It is remarkable that Herr Mallinckrodt attaches greater value to the testimony of a foreigner than to mine. It would require a man's lifetime to contradict all that my enemies write against me. I may safely say, and I am proud to be able to say it, that I am the most strongly and the best hated man of any country in Europe. Has not Herr Mallinckrodt sought to keep you and the country in the belief that La Marmora's book tells the truth? I do not wish to convince him, but I ask you, could I not have obtained the most immense results if I had been willing to cede a portion of German territory to France? Did I do so? You have no right to ask the leader of the Government to justify himself against calumny in the open tribune. That is a proceeding to characterise which no parliamentary expression can be found. The public press will, no doubt, find one to supply the deficiency.

Herr Mallinckrodt was not silenced. It would be very interesting, he said, to learn what La Marmora had to say in proof of his assertion. Thus again provoked, Bismarck made his final reply.

"I sincerely regret that the very peculiar tactics of the preceding speaker force me again to the front. After what he has now said, however, I cannot keep back the remark that by his last words he has returned to ground made untenable by the bullets I have shot against M. La Marmora. Not many minutes ago Herr von Mallinckrodt admitted that if I had contradicted M. La Marmora before this, he would not have believed the Italian General. But now, again, he speaks in such a way that there will be few in this Assembly prepared to deny that he wishes to make people persist in believing in the said General's attacks. This is what I call very exceptional and exceptionable conduct in a member of this House. . . . I can only repeat that I never entered into negotiations with the Emperor Napoleon for the cession of a single village. I could have easily reconciled that Potentate to our politics, had I made him the slightest concession of this nature. But I always abhorred any arrangement of the kind as a stain upon our national honour, and I never would even encourage the idea for a moment. Or does Herr von Mallinckrodt suspect that I made a proposition, and that the late Sovereign of the French was too coy to accept it? Is Herr von Mallinckrodt going to tell us that the Emperor Napoleon, being a German by education, was too gratefully attached to the land to which he owed his culture to lend a hand in dismembering it? Does Herr von Mallinckrodt believe that the Stuttgart reminiscences of his youth prevented that Emperor from listening to my overtures? But I must close. All this is really too absurd for me to dilate upon. Let Herr von Mallinckrodt exert himself ever so much to induce others to believe what he has just said he no longer believes himself, he will hardly succeed again in bringing me to defend myself against accusations the real nature of which cannot be fitly described in Parliamentary language. I rely upon the Press to give those accusations the name they deserve."

To answer this fierce rejoinder Herr von Mallinckrodt contented himself with saying that M. La Marmora's book could be hardly called apocryphal.

The work in question was then subjected to an examination by Government, and the despatches of General Govone therein published, declared to be forgeries. And application was made to the Italian Government to corroborate this view of the case. On February 3, the matter was brought on for discussion in the Chamber of Deputies at Rome, and Signor Visconti Venosta, the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, being questioned by M. Nicotera, a member of the Extreme Left, replied that the Government were in no way responsible for La Marmora's conduct, the publication of whose book they disapproved and lamented. The documents re-

ferred to, however they might bear the character of "private and confidential," belonged to the State, and were not at La Marmora's disposal. He did not think that the law, as it at present existed, empowered the Government to proceed against La Marmora. But a proper opportunity would be taken to provide by legislative enactments against the chances of any future indiscretion in the use of State documents. The Minister regretted that La Marmora, most assuredly against his intention, should have supplied means of attack to the enemies of Prince Bismarck, who were equally the enemies of Italy, and were interested in disturbing the friendly relations between that country and Germany; and he hoped that nothing would ever occur to weaken the ties of mutual esteem and goodwill existing between the two nations as the result of the alliance of 1866.

This explanation on the part of the Italian Government satisfied the exigencies of the case for the German Chancellor; though there were those who thought that the representations of General La Marmora, in a letter published by him in the *Opinione* of January 26, went far to justify his personal good faith, if not his discretion, and left the question of credibility open as between the deceased Govone and the living Bismarck.

The Chancellor's boast of the hatred he was acquiring by the political course to which he had pledged himself in his uncompromising struggle with the Papacy, was fully justified by facts. Not only the Ultramontanes hated him, but the Social Democrats hated him scarcely less. Their principles of civil and religious liberty were outraged by the prosecutions instituted against those who refused to recognise the State's absolute right of jurisdiction in matters ecclesiastical. They refused to admit the plea that the great warfare of the time, as concerned the ultimate interests of liberty itself, was whether the lay or the sacerdotal element should gain the mastery over the affairs of human life; that in special crises of thought and endeavour, abstract principles must need give way to energetic measures for the victory of the moment; that toleration and mental despotism might be, and often had been dangerously allied, only for the ultimate subjugation of conscience to authority; that the fundamental thesis on which the claims of the Church of Rome rested, as interpreted by its thorough-going partisans, was irreconcilably at variance with man's direct responsibility to the light within him; that this present hour, as regarded the German Empire in the throes of consolidation, would be decisive of its fate in the future, whether for vigorous self-development, or for division and weakness. But, in spite of the criticism which Bismarck's course provoked, the effective adhesion it obtained among the influential and liberal classes of his fellow-countrymen showed how deep was the sense of its necessity.

For himself, no scruple, or leaning to half measures, detained him from carrying out the contest he had commenced. "We

will not go to Canossa," he had said, alluding to the old strife between the conquered Empire and the victorious Papacy in the middle ages. And now, to complete what was called the "Falck" or the "May" legislation of the previous year 1873, it was necessary in his judgment to add three supplemental bills; the first merely explaining some terms that had been obscurely worded in the first laws, and had given rise to different interpretations in the law courts; the second and third devising very practical measures for the administration of dioceses which might happen to be deprived of their Bishops. The contingency was a pressing one; for before many weeks of the new year were over, no less than four out of the twelve Roman Catholic Bishops of the Prussian Kingdom, were more or less at issue with the Government. On February 3, Archbishop Ledochowski was arrested at Posen in consequence of his refusal to pay the fines imposed upon him for his persistent contravention of the Falck Laws. The police occupied his palace; he requested to be allowed the companionship of two of his canons; but his request was refused, and he was conducted to Ostrowa, where he was incarcerated. No popular demonstration in his favour was attempted; and the suffragan Bishop Janizowski, proceeded tranquilly to administer the affairs of the diocese.

A few weeks later the Archbishop of Cologne and the Bishop of Trèves incurred a similar visitation, for the same reason of recusancy in the non-payment of fines. At Trèves the affair went off quietly, the town being too small to admit of any concourse of people. At Cologne, the size of the place and the zeal of the Romanist lower classes, combined to give it a more sensational effect. On March 31, at half-past 6 a.m., Herr Devens, the chief of the Cologne police, attended by two subordinates, made his appearance in the Episcopal palace. The Archbishop immediately got up and, when informed of the officers' errand, begged to be allowed 24 hours to arrange his affairs. The officers could not comply with this request, but gave him two hours to prepare. They then left the palace and returned at 8 o'clock. By that time the house was full of priests; and the street was occupied by a large and noisy crowd. When the officers entered the room in which the Archbishop was, they found him taking leave of the principal ecclesiastics of the diocese. The ceremony took so long that he was at last reminded of the necessity of moving. To this the Archbishop replied that he did not intend to quit his house of his own free will at all. He would only yield to force. The principal officer, upon this, answered that such a declaration might

officer was obliged once more to touch his arm and lead him out. When they appeared at the door which was guarded by six policemen, the crowd vented their feelings in violent exclamations. The prisoner and his three custodians then entered the private carriage of Herr Devens, and amid the cries of the populace, who, however, made no attempt to hinder their progress, drove to the prison. There the Archbishop had assigned to him two newly-papered and furnished rooms. He was allowed to provide his own viands, and might receive visitors in the presence of an officer. The last words he uttered before being locked up were "*Deo Gratias!* They use force. *Finis noster victoria Ecclesie.*"

The difficulties, however, which the recusancy of the Roman Catholic clergy put in the way of Government, could only be met by Imperial as well as Prussian Legislation. Bishops and Pastors could not be incarcerated for ever; accordingly a Bill was submitted to the Federal Council and the Reichstag, and passed during the Spring Session, to prevent the reassertion of their claims by offenders whose term of imprisonment should be over. According to this new law, a Clergyman who, having been dismissed from office by sentence of the proper Court of Justice, should yet perform any act from which it might be concluded that he laid claim to the continued possession of his forfeited office, might be ordered by the administrative authorities of his State to leave, or to take up his residence in certain districts. Should such an act involve the full stretch of his former authority, or should he actually exercise the authority of which he had been deprived, or should he decline to obey the order of the administrative authority interning him, the Government of his State should then be entitled to strip him of his right of citizenship, and to expel him from the territory of the German Empire. These provisions, moreover, were to apply equally to persons who should have exercised the functions of an ecclesiastical office at variance with the law of the land, and had sentence pronounced against them for this offence by the proper Court. Persons thus losing their right of citizenship in one of the German States were to lose the like privilege in all other German States, and only to re-acquire it by consent of the State Council. Under another clause, Ecclesiastics might be removed from their ordinary place of residence directly a prosecution should be opened against them. A clause which permitted an appeal to the Supreme Court of the State against the infliction of these extreme penalties was added, it is said, despite the personal opposition and protest of Prince Bismarck; but even an appeal was only to have power to stay the enforcement of the administrative decree in the event of loss of citizenship being involved in it. The appellant might still be interned pending the final decision.

After this Bill had been accepted by the Imperial Diet—by the immense majority of 257 to 95 on the third reading—the attention of the Prussian Chambers was directed to the New Sup-

plementary Laws, which had been proposed in January, and which made their way through the Prussian Parliament by the end of May. Their object was to deal with the case of the dioceses or livings that should fall vacant. First as to the dioceses. It was decreed that: Should a Bishop be dismissed, and a temporary administrator be elected from among themselves by the chapter of the diocese, Government might or might not sanction such election. In case there were no chapter nominee, or one of whom Government disapproved, a civil administrator would be appointed to manage the Church property in the name of the King, and the Ecclesiastical Government of the diocese would lapse altogether. Then followed penalties of fine or imprisonment to be inflicted on any one attempting to administer the vacant diocese without Government sanction, and on those who should render obedience to the orders of a deposed Bishop. Another set of provisions applied to the case of parishes deprived of their priests. It was enacted that in the case of vacant livings, Patrons might continue to exercise their right of presentation, but their nominees would, of course, be required to conform to the qualifications imposed by recent legislation. If, under these circumstances, an appointment should not be made within a reasonable time, the right of the Patron should pass on to the congregation, and the same right should be exercised by the congregation in the case of all livings not having a Patron. The Burgomaster of the town or the Landrath of the County should then, at the petition of at least ten male members of the congregation, of independent means, summon a meeting of all male members similarly independent, and the vote of the majority would determine the appointment of a vicar or incumbent. In short, the law proposed to dispense with Bishops altogether, in the event of their recusancy, by transferring the property of their dioceses to Government Commissaries, and by rendering each congregation independent and self-governing.

It was evident that these two Bills were calculated to work a revolution in the aspect of the Roman Catholic Church in Germany. Never yet since the establishment of Episcopal ascendancy, had Catholic congregations been permitted to choose their own ministers, or, as a necessary consequence, to have a hand in the management of Church property.

The Imperial Parliament met on February 5. The Royal Speech which was brief and concise, was read by Prince Bismarck, the Emperor not being sufficiently recovered from his late indisposition, to appear in person.

The most important secular business brought before the Diet during this session was that relating to the new Army Bill. The Bill itself was little more than a systematic codification of the existing statutes upon the subject, rendered desirable by the minor States having recently adopted the Prussian laws, which were too many and too complicated to be easily enforced, except by practiced hands; nevertheless it was a very important one. Not only

were the few innovations introduced by it of considerable moment in themselves, but, what is more remarkable, the changes prepared, though not absolutely enacted, by the new law, would increase the army by full half-a-million of men. In the first place the Bill proposed to raise the pay of the rank and file by 6 thalers (18s.) a year, in consequence of which 1,855,000 thalers would be required over and above the sum ordinarily expended on this item. Again, some 9,000,000 thalers more were asked for the maintenance of the troops, in consequence of the steady rise in the price of all commodities, while 1,550,000 thalers were to be employed for miscellaneous needs. The whole "extra" required under these circumstances would be something like 14,000,000 thalers for the ensuing year, and 15,000,000 or 16,000,000 thalers for 1876 and afterwards. Nor did this represent the whole outlay. Other extras were entailed by special regulations, though the Military Budget was thus brought up to 113,000,000 thalers at once, and some two or three millions more in the immediate future. The Bill was introduced into the *Reichstag* in the middle of February, and referred to a special committee after a short but most important debate, the principal feature of which was a long speech from Field-Marshal Count von Moltke. After specially alluding to the first clause of the Bill, which placed the effective force of the army at 401,659 men in time of peace, and pointing out how necessary the army was for the maintenance of order at home, Count Moltke went on to speak of the prospect of peace or war as regarded foreign countries; and his utterances were caught up and commented upon throughout Europe. "What," said the famous General, "are our prospects abroad? The succeeding generation, perhaps, more fortunate than ours, may hope to be rid of the armed peace which has long been inflicted on Europe. I can see no chance of such good fortune befalling us. A great historical event, such as the restoration of the German Empire, is not accomplished in a trice. What we achieved by force of arms in six months we may perhaps be obliged to sustain by force of arms from attack for half a century. It is impossible to avoid seeing that we have acquired, since the happy issue of our last war, the respect of all, but the sympathy of none. Everywhere we are met by the same distrust, the apprehension that Germany, with her increase of power, is to become a dangerous neighbour. In Belgium you will still find plenty of sympathisers with France, but few with Germany. Holland has begun the reconstruction of her line of forts and ditches, against whom, I will not pretend to say. No German dreams of annexing Holland; for, though we conquered that country at the beginning of the century, it was not for ourselves, but for the Dutch. A pamphlet widely read in England describes an invasion not of the French but of the Germans. Denmark, too, has deemed it necessary to augment her fleet and fortify the Island of Seeland, fearing an attack from us. At one time we are credited with the intention of annexing the Baltic provinces, at

another, of seizing the German provinces of the Austrian Empire. France, the neighbour with whom we are most concerned, is reforming the whole organism of her army, copying our military institutions, and passing them off as hers. She has introduced universal compulsory service, lasting in all twenty years, instead of twelve, as in Germany. The French Government is now in a position to embody 1,200,000 men into the active, and 1,000,000 into the territorial army. The National Assembly, without distinction of party or regard for economical considerations, is willingly making the greatest sacrifices in order to restore and extend the power of the army. More warlike than the War Minister, that body has compelled him to accept an additional sum of 17,000,000*f.* in order to call up the second portion of the contingent, and its action is supported by the whole country. I believe that the great majority of Frenchmen are animated by a sincere desire for peace, but we have seen how a party may drag Government and people into the most unexpected resolutions. The cry which comes to us from the Vosges is the frantic desire for revenge. We do not wish to follow our neighbours in their scheme for extending the army, but, on the other hand, we must take care that it does not decline. The peace effective must be settled for a long period. Remember that every diminution of that effective makes itself felt over a term of twelve years, and we cannot tell what twelve years may bring forth. The mildest of men may be dragged into a quarrel if he has a troublesome neighbour. I believe that we shall show to the world that we are a powerful but yet a peaceful nation, that we do not wish to make war through love of glory or conquest. Indeed, I don't know what we should do with a morsel taken from Russia or France! I hope that we shall not merely keep the peace for a number of years, but impose it, as a moral necessity, upon other nations. Then, perhaps, people will come to see that a powerful Germany in the centre of Europe is the best guarantee for the peace of the old world. But, gentlemen, if you wish for peace, be ready for war, and I believe that it is our duty in the present condition of Europe, to declare either that we have no need of a strong army, or else to accord all that is necessary for maintaining it in full force."

Later in the session the discussion of the Army Bill led to some animated warfare. But before narrating it we must insert some incidents respecting the affairs of Alsace-Lorraine, which caused sensation and some amusement within the walls of the Legislature. On Feb. 16 the deputies elected for the newly annexed province made their entrance in solemn and formal fashion into the House. They walked in, two and two, preceded by the Speaker's clerk, and handed to the Speaker a motion to the effect that the Frankfort Treaty of Peace having been concluded without the sanction of the inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine, the opinion of the latter should be taken on the subject.

The 18th was fixed for the debate. The sitting had been

hardly opened when the Alsatian members moved for permission to speak French, as they were not conversant with the German tongue. The Speaker observing that no motion could be discussed on the day of its delivery, unless with the unanimous consent of the House, which it would be useless to ask for, one or two Alsatian members applied to Prince Bismarck, who was present in his usual seat, and asked whether he would not oblige them by intervening in a matter they had so very much at heart. The Prince curtly replied that he had no power to interfere with the rules of the House, and that, as far as he personally was concerned, he must tell them at once that in the German Parliament he understood no language except German. Thus baffled, Herr Teutsch, the Alsatian member selected as spokesman by his colleagues, a Protestant, ascended the Tribune, and, to the surprise of the House, held forth in excellent German to the following effect:—

“Gentlemen,—The honour of saying a few words on behalf of our motion has been delegated to me. German not being my native tongue, I am obliged to claim your indulgence. Here he was interrupted by laughter and cries of ‘*Teutsch, Teutsch!*’ his own name, unfortunately for him, meaning ‘German.’ I can assure you, gentlemen, I am utterly unable to deliver a speech in German, and, therefore, if you will permit me, shall read from the manuscript I have in my hand.” Then he read. “The inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine, whom we represent in the German Parliament, have charged us to express their sentiments respecting a Treaty by which they have been deprived of their nationality. We believe it to be in the interest of Germany to be apprised of their views, and we beg you to hear us to the end. The issue of the last war having been what it was, your nation, no doubt, was entitled to an indemnity on the part of France; but in annexing Alsace-Lorraine you overstepped the limits by which a civilised nation ought to consider itself bound. (Here groans were heard, and cries of ‘No insults.’) I repeat it, gentlemen, you overstepped the limits by which a civilised nation ought to consider itself bound.”

Herr von Forckenbeck, the Speaker, interposed:—

“I must interrupt the honourable member. Knowing the Treaty right of the German nation to be undoubted, and knowing, moreover, the German nation to be strong enough to defend its rights, I am prepared to allow the honourable member to go all lengths in communicating to us his sentiments. But if he chooses to charge Germany with behaviour unworthy of a civilised nation, I regret to find myself under the necessity of calling him to order.”

Herr Teutsch proceeded amid mingled laughter and cheers:—

“Permit me to tell you, gentlemen, that I do not wish to offend you. Indeed, I do not wish to offend you; and perhaps I am not sufficiently conversant with the German tongue—I say I am not sufficiently conversant with the German tongue to appreciate the exact meaning of the words I utter. Of course, I have

certain things to communicate, which cannot but be disagreeable to you; yet I deny that I intend to offend. So far from intending to insult the German nation, you will see at once that I am going to appeal to the brotherly love and affection which ought to exist between the civilised peoples of the world."

The Speaker said:—

"I beg the House to allow the honourable member to proceed. The honourable member says that he means no offence, and we may, therefore, expect him to adapt his words to his intentions."

Herr Teutsch then resumed the reading of his manuscript, which contained a long denunciation of the act of annexation, a denial that a Treaty, exacted by force, was binding on the party coerced. "Jesuits' doctrine!" cried voices from the Assembly. "Even Napoleon III.—that insane despot to whose madman's policy we are indebted for our sufferings of to-day—never would annex a country without taking the opinion of the inhabitants" continued the Alsatian deputy: "Having been united with France, some of us for two centuries and some for a shorter period, the ties existing between us and the French are too strong to be ever severed by your arguments, or the brute force you may bring to bear upon us. We are aware that our adversaries are intent upon representing the Alsace-Lorraine members in this House as animated not by French national sentiments, but by love and devotion to the Catholic Church only. Without denying that the oppression of the Catholics in Prussia has contributed to enlighten the minds of our constituents upon the issues of the question, we are yet driven to assert that our election was much more than a manifestation of religious sentiment. We all have been sent here to give expression to those feelings of devotion to France which animate our hearts and the hearts of our constituents. Do you believe that by calling us Germans you will make us so? Do you imagine that we shall become members of the German family contrary to our wishes and interests?

But it became manifest that the patriotic Alsace-Lorrainers were themselves divided in their views, when Dr. Rass, the Bishop of Strasburg, rose to comment on Herr Teutsch's address. Speaking in excellent German the Bishop said:—

"To prevent misunderstandings that might probably arise from the declaration made by the preceding speaker who is not a Roman Catholic, I beg to announce in my own name, and in the name of my co-religionists in Alsace and Lorraine, that we have no wish to question the validity of a treaty concluded between two of the great Powers of Europe. I thought it my duty to declare as much at the very outset of this debate."

The House deeming it unnecessary to prolong the discussion, Herr Teutsch, as the spokesman of the members who had signed the motion, was, in accordance with rules, permitted to speak once more. All he said was this:—"You choose to cut the discussion short. As to ourselves we rely upon God and the decision of Eu-

rope." The motion was then rejected, the only votes in its favour being 23, given by the Poles, Danes, Socialists, and three Particularists. The Alsace-Lorrainers, from ignorance, it was supposed, of the customs of the House, voted with the majority.

The following day, Herr Pouget, another member for the annexed Provinces, got up to lodge a counter-protest against the counter-protest lodged by Bishop Rass. He said, likewise in good German:—

"I am told that in recognising the validity of the Frankfort Treaty of Peace, Bishop Rass yesterday took upon himself to speak in the name of his co-religionists of Alsace and Lorraine. If he really did this I am constrained to tell you that the Bishop has spoken in his own name, not in the name of the Roman Catholic deputies for Alsace and Lorraine."

These differences of opinion among the Alsace-Lorrainers had been noticeable at the time of the elections. There was a party which held that the members for the Provinces should make their appearance in the German Parliament merely to protest against annexation, after which they must leave Berlin and return home immediately. There was another, and a more numerous party, which held that the protest might or might not be lodged, but that the members, under any circumstances, ought to remain in Berlin, to co-operate with the Ultramontane fraction of the House on all occasions which might be of moment to the Church. In the elections the protest party was victorious only in four electoral districts of Lorraine. The antagonism of these French-speaking regions being too great to be repressed even by the priests, the members returned by them engaged to enter into no discussions with the representatives of the victorious country. In the other eleven wards, where German is the language of the majority, the people were sufficiently under the control of the clergy to vote for downright Ultramontanes with no politics except those prescribed by the Church. The debate of February 18, showed that the divisions between the two sets of members had continued even in Berlin, and that misunderstanding each other's sentiments upon the subject; and believing themselves to be at one when they were far from it, they introduced a common motion, only to fall out with each other in public the moment the discussion upon it began.

A few days afterwards another Alsatian debate brought Prince Bismarck to the front. The motion, put forward by the local deputies, was for placing the conquered Province under the ordinary laws prevailing in the German Commonwealth, and relieving it from the provisional act of annexation by which the Civil Governor of Alsace and Lorraine, in case of urgent necessity, was entitled to exercise the powers allowed to the military authorities in France under the like circumstances; to suspend journals, dissolve meetings, pay domiciliary visits, order all arms to be given up, and expel any person from any locality, provided it be not his regular place of residence.

Prince Bismarck's speech, in opposition to the motion, was, as usual, bitter and sarcastic, as well as plain spoken. The following are some of its principal passages:—

“However unpleasant it may be for a Minister to attend a debate meant as a personal attack upon himself, I confess I cannot help feeling a sort of satisfaction in the present instance. I rejoice that if annexation was unavoidable, it is to Berlin, and not to Versailles, that those annexed have been obliged to go to lodge their complaints. I rejoice also in the conviction that this Government, acting honourably and above-board, can afford to be misrepresented to the world without suffering a diminution of public respect. I likewise glory in the thought that we are living in a country so thoroughly conscious of its strength and the justice of its cause, that we are in a position to bear attacks not likely to be tolerated in many Legislative Assemblies of Europe. Looking at the complaints of the honourable members for Alsace, we find them constantly telling us that they wish to be free men, thus aspiring to a condition which was certainly not theirs under French rule, but which they insist upon regarding as their right now that they are Germans again. Will honourable members for Alsace permit me to tell them that, however earnestly we may endeavour to make them all the concessions compatible with our safety, the making them free men was by no means our primary intention when annexing them? After the infamous and sinful attack upon our country, in which they took part, we had to strengthen our frontiers as best we could. Accordingly, we incorporated Alsace and Lorraine. Now that we have them we shall, of course, exert ourselves to render them as happy as we can. We have no doubt that the population will soon learn to feel like Germans again; and that if, 200 years hence, the question is put to the vote whether they wish to revert to France, they will pretty unanimously decide in our favour. In the meantime they will do well to consider that, even if they still enjoyed the supreme happiness of finding themselves under French rule, they would not thereby be exempt from the operation of military laws. At this moment no less than twenty-eight Departments of France are still placed under military law, and governed with a stringency, not to say with an iron rigour, in comparison to which Alsace and Lorraine, in their present lamentable condition of German Provinces, may consider themselves as very well off indeed. At any rate, the poor Alsace-Lorrainers, now that they are Germans again, have lost the agreeable prospect of ever taking a voyage to the penal settlements of Lambessa and New Caledonia! It is deplorable to reflect what they have lost. As to the motion introduced by honourable members, I must say that only a short time ago, looking at the apparently satisfactory condition of Alsace, I really hoped we might soon be able to dispense with the exceptional powers confided to the Governor. I regret to say that, after the experience of the last few days, I no longer retain this opinion. Now that I have seen

and heard the gentlemen representing Alsace in this Assembly, I am afraid we shall be obliged to continue a state of things under which untruths and provocations cannot be so easily uttered at a Strasburg meeting as in the Berlin Parliament. Things might be believed at a Strasburg meeting which are only regarded as amusing perversions of fact in Berlin ; and as this poor country of ours has the terrible misfortune of bordering on bellicose and conquest-loving France, we must look first to our safety, and when that is secured shall have great pleasure in promoting the happiness of honourable members from Alsace. By the by, I should wish to remind the Alsations on this occasion that they have always supplied the French army with a disproportionately large quota of soldiers and non-commissioned officers, and that in the many wars France has been pleased to impose upon us in the 200 years since their annexation, we have had to fight them as well as the rest of the subjects of the Paris Government. But we are delighted to have these good soldiers now on our side, and shall certainly do all in our power to keep them where they are. We contend that Alsace is a freer and a happier country after four years of German rule than it has been during the 200 years it belonged to France ; but, even if it were otherwise, we should have the right to ask those Alsations who come here to protest against annexation why they did not protest against war in 1870. In my humble opinion, they ought, in contrition and remorse, to smite their breasts rather than treat us to sonorous language founded on the misrepresentation of patent facts. However, as I cannot prevent them from pursuing the course they have chosen, I am all the more glad to perceive that public opinion is on our side, and declines to be led away by their garbled statements. At any rate, we are bound to respect their feelings, though we cannot repress a smile at the theatrical style in which they express them. You are aware how often a German is moved to laughter when witnessing the performance of a French tragedy, although it may be acted by the first heroes of the stage. I hope the House will give the Imperial Government a mark of confidence by rejecting the motion of the Alsatian members."

And the motion was lost by 198 votes against 138, in spite of a speech from Herr Windthorst, the Ultramontane leader, who advocated the cause of the Alsations in the name of his party, ever anxious to support the enemies of the Government ; and in spite of the concurrence of the Poles and Socialists with the vote given by the Ultramontanes. The debate was not long in bearing fruit. Exasperated by the attitude of the Alsatian members, Government instructed the Alsatian authorities to avail themselves of the licence allowed them under the obnoxious statute, of preventing the circulation in the Province of such French papers as should advocate *revanche*.

The proposed increase of the military establishment of the German Empire, and the demand that the estimates should be permanent, instead of being voted year by year, met with strong

opposition, not only from Ultramontanes and Particularists, the ordinary foes of Government, but from numerous deputies who were among the most zealous supporters of its general policy. Just at this time Prince Bismarck was taken ill, with one of those attacks of pain and sleeplessness to which he was often liable, and the discussions in Parliament had to be conducted without his personal intervention. His colleagues who did speak, men of official or military type, did not shew much skill in handling the business. The Emperor had set his heart on passing the Bill; and the Government was getting into something of a dead lock, compromises being suggested, to which the Emperor's pertinacity induced him to give a direct negative. At last Bismarck on his sick bed was appealed to on behalf of a compromise suggested by Herr Bennigsen, to the effect that the additional force required by Government should be voted; but for seven years only, and not for perpetuity. To this arrangement Bismarck gave his consent; he had next to gain over his Imperial master; but the Emperor William was not wont to hold out when his Chancellor clearly saw his way to a desirable State measure; and on April 14 the compromise, adopted by Government, was carried by a majority of eighty in a house of less than 400 members. During the debate Count von Moltke spoke again. He said that he still retained his opinion that the Government ought to be in a position to let the world know that it had as large an army as it thought necessary to meet any Power or Powers that wished to disturb the peace of Europe; but he accepted the compromise, and felt no doubt that at the end of seven years a patriotic Parliament would again take care that the Fatherland was adequately protected. To the amount of the force, there was no real Parliamentary opposition, although outside there were numerous writers who undertook the easy task of proving that a peace effective of 400,000 men must be a serious burden on the resources of the country. But among those who were invested with real responsibility, there was no resisting the Ministerial argument that, in face of the enormous military preparations of France and Russia, Germany was not doing too much when she contented herself with occupying the third place in the list of nominal military strength. Peace could only be secured by its being known that Germany could any day take the field. That a large and well-prepared army is thus the indispensable basis of German finance, was urged with considerable force by the Finance Minister, and Marshal Von Moltke again entreated his countrymen to bear in mind that, as they had been within hearing of the shouts for revenge that had been recently raised, they must needs keep their hands on the sword.

The Imperial Diet was prorogued on April 26; one of its last measures of importance being the passing of the Press Bill. By the provisions of this Bill the police were to be deprived of the right of seizure previous to the condemnation of the indicted matter by the proper Court of Law. The clause declaring incite-

ment to violate the laws a culpable offence was thrown out, as being too vaguely worded to appear safe. The practice of mentioning "dummies" as responsible editors was by common consent heartily condemned, and was to be henceforth liable to a heavy fine. Alsace and Lorraine were excepted from the operation of the law, notwithstanding the protests lodged by the Alsatian Deputies.

Herr Camphausen, the Finance Minister, had the satisfaction of announcing a surplus of twenty-one million thalers for the year 1873. The ordinary revenue was $244\frac{1}{2}$ million thalers, and the extraordinary $103\frac{1}{2}$ millions, the corresponding expenditure being 222 millions and 104 millions. As a sequel to these disclosures, Herr Camphausen submitted a scheme for the liquidation of the public debt. It would take effect from the commencement of the ensuing year, and effect an annual saving of over two million thalers.

A few weeks after the Diet broke up, one of Bismarck's most determined political opponents, Hermann von Mallinckrodt, of the Centre fraction, died suddenly at Berlin. He was a man of considerable power of mind, and conversant with public business, in which he had borne an official share up to 1872. In parliamentary debate less vigorous and incisive than his fellow politician Windthorst, he was more enthusiastic and sincere.

The Chancellor himself, as soon as he was well enough to leave the capital, repaired first to his estate at Varzin, and then to Kissingen, there to drink the waters prescribed for the recovery of his strength. He arrived at the last mentioned place on July 4, and was greeted with every demonstration of honour by the Bavarian authorities.

To Kissingen, a few days later, betook himself a young man named Kullmann, a journeyman cooper, stolid and uneducated, but possessed with a fanatical hatred of the "Falk Laws" and their originator, and imbued with the political teaching of the Ultramontane fraternities, to one or more of which he belonged. He drank at public houses, fired pistols, and wandered about in the woods and bye roads, meditating a dark deed.

On July 13, at half-past one in the afternoon, Prince Bismarck, as was his wont, entered his carriage to take a drive preparatory to his bath. The succeeding events may be told in the words of a contemporary journal:—

"The carriage left the garden surrounding the villa and entered the street. A short thick-set man, in the garb of a Roman priest, stepped before the horses: the coachman, calling out to the intruder, desired him to stand aside; the priest at first did not seem to notice the warnings of the coachman, but eventually left the road, and moving rapidly along the footpath, kept up with the carriage. Fifty paces farther on he again stepped into the road right before the carriage. There were but few persons in this part of the street; one of these, detaching himself from the rest, proceeded across the road to within a few paces in advance of the carriage. Taking off

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his hat to pay his respects to the Prince, he caused the latter to give the military salute in return. At this moment the carriage, in its onward course, had so far proceeded as to bring Prince Bismarck almost parallel with the individual in the road. In another instant, and while the priest was still loitering about before the horses, the man drew a pistol from his pocket, and, deliberately taking aim, fired at the Prince at a few paces distance. The man being to the left of the carriage, the Prince, having raised his right hand in saluting, the bullet grazed the palm just below the thumb. The shot had no sooner been fired than the coachman, fearing a second shot, struck the assassin right across the face with the lash of his whip. Upon this, flinging away the pistol, the man ran for his life. The priest decamped the moment the shot was fired, the few spectators on the spot hardly realising what had happened. In suppressed excitement the Prince ordered the coachman to drive home. As the carriage turned he glanced hastily towards the villa inhabited by him, and seeing his daughter standing motionless on the balcony, beckoned to her to signify that all was well, but the Countess Marie was apparently too overcome by emotion to heed the sign he gave."

Dr. Diruff, the Prince's physician, who was in the carriage with him at the time the attempt was made, said afterwards, that he never knew a man whose life had been in imminent danger, to be as calm as Bismarck was after the attempt. One of the wounds, being near the pulse artery, narrowly escaped being dangerous. The pain continued to be distressing for months afterwards.

The assassin was Kullmann, the journeyman cooper. He was secured after a desperate effort to escape. In the evening a grand torchlight procession, with chorus and band, wended its way to the Chancellor's residence, playing and singing with frantic enthusiasm the "*Wacht am Rhein*." The hurrahs were deafening when Bismarck himself appeared on the balcony and uttered the following words:—

"Gentlemen,—I thank you for your sympathy. Thank God with me, whose hand has so evidently shielded me. To say another word on the subject is not suitable for me. It must be left to the judgment of the Judges. This, however, I may add—that the blow which was hurled against me was not dealt against my person, but against the cause to which I have devoted my life—the unity, independence, and liberty of Germany; and if I had been compelled to die for this great cause, what would it have been more than what happened to thousands of our countrymen, who three years back left their blood and life on the battle-field? The great work, however, that with my weak powers I have begun to help in, will not be destroyed by such means as those from which God to-day so graciously protected me. It will be accomplished through the strength of the united German people. In the hopes of this I pray you to join with me in a cheer for the united German people and their allied Princes."

It was proved on the subsequent inquiry that the priest who had stepped in front of the horses, Hanthaler by name, was innocent. He had, accidentally only, sought to gain a view of the Chancellor at the moment that Kullmann was preparing for his attempt. Bismarck visited his would-be assassin in prison, and asked him the reason of his crime. Kullmann avowed that his motives were revenge and hatred in consequence of the Ecclesiastical Laws. His trial took place at Wurzburg, on October 29. A plea of insanity was urged on his behalf; but this the jury refused to accept, and sentence of fourteen years' imprisonment was passed upon him. That he had any accomplices was not brought in evidence. His crime seemed to have been of his own conception; but that the tone of the Ultramontane Press and Pulpit had excited his ferocious and homicidal tendencies to destroy the enemy of the Church and the Clergy, was a fact that could hardly be doubted. He said himself that his immediate motive was what he had heard of the persecution of the Archbishop of Posen.

And to be just to both parties in a life and death quarrel, it must be owned that if the supporters of the State policy had a right to cry horror at the murderous attempt of a fanatic, the adherents of the Papacy could not fail to feel grief and resentment at the rigid measures pursued against teachers and pastors whom they had been accustomed to revere. The situation in Posen, subsequent to the Archbishop's removal, which was typical of the state of things in many other German dioceses, is thus described by a journalist at the end of the first week in August:—"The 'present contest against the recalcitrant Roman clergy,' as the Government organs call it, began on July 23 with the prosecution of Canon Korythowski for carrying on the administration of the archdiocese against the provisions of the new laws. Matter for the indictment was procured by a domiciliary search among the papers of the auxiliary bishop, Janiszewski, and it ended in a sentence of nine months' imprisonment pronounced against the accused, which seems to have been changed by the Minister of Worship into banishment from Gnesen within twenty-four hours, with a prohibition to reside anywhere in Prussia, Posen, Silesia, or Frankfort. Korythowski was accordingly forcibly removed by the police, being accompanied to the railway station by a sympathetic crowd, who four times stopped the carriage and cheered him loudly; and he has taken up his abode at Munster. Next day followed the seizure of Bishop Janiszewski, who had refused to pay the fine of 3,000 thalers incurred by disobedience to the May laws. He was carried off to Kozmin, where he is to be imprisoned for a year. He was only allowed half-an-hour to prepare for departure and take leave of the Chapter; and was then hurried through the streets in a close carriage at a rapid pace to prevent any popular demonstration. Meanwhile the Chapter of Gnesen, who are thus deprived of their local as well as their episcopal superior, are involved in a fresh quarrel with the Government for refusing to obey the order of the

Minister of Worship directing a thanksgiving in the churches of the diocese for the safe delivery of the Princess Albrecht; the right of issuing such directions appertaining, as they insist, to the Bishop alone."

During the second week in the same month, the German Ultramontane papers recorded five arrests of Roman Catholic priests, eleven expulsions, and twenty sequesterations of Church property, in addition to the dissolution of four Catholic societies, and inquiries into six others, one of which has since been also dissolved.

By Nov. 1, in the Province of Posen, twenty-nine parishes were without their pastors. Only two patrons and not one of the parish congregations had availed themselves of the powers given by the law of May 21 to fill up vacancies. The case of the parish of Xions, however, brought on a crucial trial of forces. There, the patron had appointed to the vacated living, a priest of the name of Kubaczek, known for his favourable disposition towards the Prussian Government. The Dean, Rzezniewski, and the former Vicar, refused to give up the keys and church books; both had to be obtained by force. On August 30 Kubaczek celebrated his first service, when a tumultuous mob penetrated into the church, and it became necessary to summon troops to disperse the rioters. Rzezniewski proceeded soon afterwards to read the sentence of excommunication against the state-supported priest, in a neighbouring church in the presence of 1,800 persons. It concluded with these words:—

"I declare him to be excluded from the Holy Roman Catholic Church; to have forfeited the privileges of the servants of that Church, and to be condemned with the devil to eternal damnation if he departs this life under this sentence without reconciliation with God."

The Dean then blew out a candle which had been lit for the purpose, and broke it to pieces.

This was a specimen of the bitterness which was everywhere being imported into the church and state conflict. Dean Rzezniewski was not left to utter his excommunications with impunity. He was soon afterwards committed to prison on a charge of having refused to give up the church books of the parish of Wlosciejewki.

But after a time it was found that Roman Catholic clergymen forcibly removed from their livings for transgressing the Ecclesiastical Laws, made a practice of returning to their parishes and celebrating Divine service as though nothing had happened. The practice, in fact, became so universal that there was but one way of accounting for it, and that was, that it must have been by special injunction from the Pope. After tolerating it for a few weeks, the Government, which had probably hoped that this daring disregard of the law would die out of itself, determined to make a stand. Towards the end of October three policemen were stationed at the door of St. Laurence at Tièves to arrest one Father Schneider, an expelled

priest, as he left the church after performing Holy Mass; but the reverend father managed to escape by a back door. The same three policemen, a few days after, entered the church as the father was standing at the altar. Placing themselves opposite the Communion Table, they arrested him the moment service was over and in sight of the whole congregation. The church was full of women and men of the lower class, who, not a little excited by the occurrence, began to jostle the policemen. Upon this one of this latter drew his sword, when all resistance ceased. The arrest was effected without anybody being wounded or otherwise injured. Another case that excited notice was that of the Bishop of Hildesheim, who was to have paid 200 thalers for ignoring the Ecclesiastical Laws. When the sheriff called to demand the money or take his goods instead, the bishop opened a desk, which, he said, contained all his earthly possessions. In the desk, the sheriff found two thalers and a legal document containing the absolute surrender by the bishop of all his property to his sister. The bishop belonged to those ecclesiastics who had hitherto paid their fines; and his sudden recusancy, coupled with the return of the expelled priests to their parishes, seemed to indicate an intention of the Pope to bring on a crisis. Defying this Papal policy, the leading Liberal papers of the Catholic districts unanimously expressed the hope that the Government would stringently enforce the law, and arrest on the very steps of the altar every expelled priest who should return to officiate in his parish.

Another resolute recusant, Dr. Krementz, Bishop of Ermeland, was fined again to the amount of 200 thalers.

Amidst all this religious party warfare, a daring move made by Bishop Ketteler, the Hotspur, as he has been called, of the German Episcopacy, to prevent his flock from taking part in the anniversary celebration of the Battle of Sedan, met with signal ill-success. In his pastoral on the occasion, the Bishop declared that the idea of remembering the incidents of the French campaign originated with the Liberals, who looked upon the victory of 1870 as a triumph over Rome rather than over France: besides, he added, it was well known that the Liberals being irreligious to a man, the Church and its believing members had no call to sympathise with them on this or, indeed, on any other occasion. At this rash utterance of their diocesan, the Romanists themselves mostly stood aghast. The Liberals were stimulated to show that they, at least, were the friends of German unity, which the Ultramontane bishop had thrown over. And the result was that a cry arose for a grand jubilee over the memories of Sedan, from the Baltic to the Alps, and Romanist pastors were found in many parts of the country vying with Protestants in their zeal to prove their patriotism.

One of the most obstinate of the Prussian prelates, Bishop Martin of Paderborn, was arrested on August 4, and was shortly afterwards required by the Government to resign his see. With this request he decidedly refused to comply, saying in a letter of Sept. 15

that the proceedings on account of which he had been called upon to lay down his office, were not the result of a spirit of opposition to the laws of the State, but acts of defence dictated by duty. It was not right to charge him with resisting the laws because he did not assist in the execution of those which he could not aid or approve without being a miserable traitor to his Church, and a perjured bishop. In his recent pastoral he did not incite to disturbance of the public tranquillity and order, but to their preservation. He could not conscientiously obey the demand made upon him to relinquish his office; and if the President should, consequently, consider himself bound to institute proceedings against him in the Ecclesiastical Court, and the Court should actually pronounce his dismissal from his post, he should declare that decision to be null and void. No public functionary had given him his position as bishop, and none could take it from him.

Then the Public Prosecutor began his work. In the act of accusation drawn up by that official, the Bishop was charged with having announced his intention to resist the Ecclesiastical Laws before they were enacted, with having resisted them in the most dogged style, and with having infected his entire clergy with the uncompromising spirit manifested by himself. He had been sentenced to innumerable fines, chiefly for appointing clergymen without the consent of the secular authorities. Never paying any of these forfeits, he had been repeatedly imprisoned and forcibly prevented from exercising his functions. Notwithstanding the measures taken against him, he had continued his opposition to the State. He would not allow his clerical training schools to be visited by Government inspectors; he had declined to re-appoint a chaplain he had excommunicated without the consent of Government; and he had continually issued pastorals and made speeches to deputations, breathing the most hostile sentiments against Crown and Parliament.

The deposition of this fiery prelate was pronounced a few days after the close of the year. During his persistent contest with the authorities, great manifestations of sympathy were shown him by the Westphalian Ultramontanes. Some thirty ladies, in particular, signalled themselves by presenting an address to him: for which breach of law they were tried, found guilty, and fined; the Countess Nesselrode-Reichenstein and the Countess von Merveldt being the most conspicuous of their number. A few weeks after this transaction there was a demonstration of sympathy with the fair victims of the law, from certain English ladies of the Ultramontane type; the Dowager Marchioness of Lothian and Lady Herbert of Lea coming to Munster to offer them congratulations on their sufferings in the holy cause. These English ladies were received at the station by a deputation of the Catholic portion of the Westphalian nobility, and immediately proceeded to the mansion of Count Nesselrode, where they delivered a written

address to the Countess. The mansions of the Catholic nobility were decorated with flags on the occasion.

The Ultramontane party had one small conversion to boast of this year in the regions of German Royalty. The Queen Dowager of Bavaria, a Prussian princess, and cousin of the German Emperor, made her profession in October. A journalist writing from Rome at the time, reports, "When the Holy Father heard of the abjuration of Protestantism by the Queen Mother of Bavaria he evidenced the greatest emotion. Bursting into tears and elevating his eyes to heaven, he exclaimed, 'My God! Thy poor Vicar is unworthy of such consolation.'"

Before quitting this subject we give some statements from a letter published in the *Times* by the Duke of Norfolk on Jan. 12, 1875. The letter, dated Dec. 30, is by a German presenting the Roman Catholic side of the question:—

"1. Five Bishops have been imprisoned—the Archbishop of Posen (Feb. 3), the Archbishop of Cologne (in March), the Bishop of Trèves (in March), the Bishop Coadjutor of Posen, and the Bishop of Paderborn. The Archbishop of Cologne has been released about two months ago, but will have to go into prison again in a short time.

"2. Fines have been imposed upon all the above-named Bishops and upon the Bishops of Munster, Hildesheim, Breslau, Culm, Ermeland, Limburg—*i.e.*, all the Bishops of Prussia, except the Bishop of Osnabruck. The see of Fulda is vacant. Domiciliary visits from the police or the officers who sold their furniture have been received by those of Cologne, Trèves, Munster, Hildesheim, Breslau, Culm, Posen, Limburg.

"3. How many priests there are in prison at this date I cannot say, but up to Dec. 3—since the beginning of the Falck laws—1,400 priests of Prussia have either been sent to prison or fined on account of these laws; about 100 have been driven out of their country, or several countries have been forbidden for them; and some few who persisted in returning to their flocks after they had been driven by the police over the frontier, have been banished to the Isle of Rugen. In most of the prisons they are treated decently, just like political prisoners, but in some places—for instance at Dusseldorf and Cleve—they were kept in the same room with criminals, and treated like them, in a manner of which no German Catholic paper dares give a description, as this would make the situation of the poor priests still worse. But in the Prussian Chamber of Deputies, which will open in the middle of next month, the Catholic members are going to lay the details before the House and the astonished country."

The connection of the great Church and State contest with the bearings of external politics was a point which Bismarck never lost sight of. This guided him in his persistent detachment from the Legitimist party in France, and it prompted him in his dealings with Spain, where he looked upon the Carlist cause as irrecon-

cileably antagonistic to the great issues on which his soul was bent. The murder of Captain Schmidt, a German newspaper correspondent, by the Carlists of Estella, gave him a pretext for sending some German gunboats to the Bay of Biscay to prevent the Carlists from receiving surreptitious help from France or elsewhere; and likewise for taking the initiative in recognising the Government of Marshal Serrano: a step in which the German example was followed by all the other Governments of Europe, Russia excepted. To secure such recognition from the existing Government of France was in particular a stroke of able policy; for the encouragement given to the Carlists from across the border, though disavowed by the French Foreign Minister when questioned on the subject, was strongly suspected to be connived at as a sop to the Legitimists.

When the Imperial Parliament met again on October 29, the Emperor delivered the Speech from the throne. After referring to the bills intended to secure unity of judicial procedure which would be laid before the Parliament, he continued:—

“Legislation on military matters, so effectually promoted by last year’s army law, is to be further developed by the three supplementary bills of this session. Of these three bills, two—those upon the *Landsturm* and the control to be exercised over men on furlough—were foreshadowed in last year’s military law. The third is to remodel in a manner adapted to modern requirements the existing obligation to supply quarters and provisions to the army in time of peace. . . . You will see from the Budget for 1873 that the additional contributions by the various States to the Imperial Exchequer predicted last session will suffice to cover the increase in the civil and military expenditure of the realm. The circulation of Government paper notes having been regulated last session, the only currency law which remains to be enacted refers to bank-notes. In framing the bill to be submitted to you on this important question, the confederate Governments were anxious to interfere with existing rights only to the extent required by the public interest in maintaining the metal circulation at a proper level. They also were desirous to pave the way for future bills, to be based upon fuller experience, respecting the circulation of gold. The bills constitutionally required for ordering the revision of the public accounts which were not completed last session, will be again laid before you. You will be likewise asked to give a final discharge for the public accounts from 1867 to 1871, and to pass a preliminary vote on the revenue and expenditure of 1873. Your assistance will be required for the first time to enact a budget for Alsace-Lorraine. The examination of these estimates, while acquainting you more thoroughly with the resources, requirements, and institutions of the province, will convince our countrymen on the Upper Rhine of the deep interest the nation at large takes in the welfare of that ancient German land. The resolution passed by you last session with reference to the desirability of enforcing

civil registration of births, deaths, and marriages has caused the State Council to order the drawing up of a bill making civil marriage obligatory and rearranging the records of births and deaths. The postal department of the Empire has been authorised by me to endeavour to effect certain international postal reforms. Thanks to the project being entertained by all the States with which we entered into negotiations, a Postal Convention has been signed at Berne which will give unprecedented facilities to the intellectual and commercial intercourse of nations. Our relations with all foreign Governments are pacific and amicable. The tried friendship uniting me with the rulers of powerful States is a guarantee for the duration of peace, in which I may ask you to repose full confidence. I know myself to be free from all tempting thoughts to employ the united power of the Empire for other than defensive purposes. Conscious of the power at our disposal, my Government can afford to pass over in silence the suspicions unjustly cast upon its policy. Not until the malice and party passions to whose attacks we are exposed, proceed from words to action, shall we resent them. In such an event the whole nation and its princes will join me in defending our honour and our rights."

These last sentences in the Emperor's Speech, took the country by surprise. They were understood to refer to the action of those French statesmen who, while their Government professed to be on friendly terms with Germany, stimulated certain journals to represent the Imperial policy as continually harbouring aggressive designs. The *Magdeburg Zeitung*, a Liberal paper, remarked:—"The Royal Speech necessarily produced a deep impression. People were driven to ask what were the circumstances inducing His Majesty to vindicate the international policy of this country in such energetic terms. However much against their will, the conclusion was forced upon them that, though the calumnies circulated at our expense were as yet mere blarney, they would not have been noticed unless countenanced in quarters sufficiently powerful to proceed from word to action when the right moment came. It was evident that, were the French papers supposed to represent the views of a few private individuals only, the malice to which they have been treating us of late would not have been considered worth a thought. The result of these reflections was that the continuance of peace would be endangered if what is going on at Paris were to be persisted in."

Of three of the measures intimated in the Emperor's Speech, something must now be said. The *Landsturm* Bill was after some preliminary discussion, relegated to a committee, which it was expected would introduce various modifications before it was again brought before the Diet. A description of the law, if it passes, must therefore be postponed to another year's history. It will be sufficient here to observe that the object of the measure in question is simply to organise the *Landsturm*, which, organised, officered, and placed under military law, becomes a part of the German

army, and increases by some hundreds of thousands the military forces at the disposal of the Government. Like other organised bodies of men under military command, the troops of the *Landsturm* would naturally be regarded as lawful combatants; but the object of the Government in rendering it available for military service is, in the first place, to enable it to fight. In proposing to give to the *Landsturm* a settled constitution, Prince Bismarck, or his representative in the Federal Council, is said to have "wished to put off the moment when it would be necessary to appeal to the masses and allow individuals to act on their own account, thus placing themselves beyond the pale of international law." This is not out of harmony with the Russian project at the Brussels Conference, as that project does not condemn popular levies, but simply demands, on the very principle accepted and acted upon by Prince Bismarck, that "individuals acting on their own account" shall not be regarded as "within the pale of international law." What is really important, however, in Prince Bismarck's proposition is the fact that it forms into a new reserve the whole of the able-bodied male population of Germany above the age of thirty-two; and there can be no doubt that this step has been hastened by the systematic carrying out of the new law of recruiting in France, by which the whole of the male population is called to military service, not, as under the Prussian law, between the ages of twenty and thirty-two, but between the ages of twenty and forty.

The Bank Bill gave rise to an animated debate on November 16 and 18. Government encountered vigorous opposition. Finally the Bill was referred to a Committee. The objections to the measure as originally proposed by Ministers, seem to be serious and valid. The English *Economist* wrote of it thus:—"The paper currency of the German Empire ought to be such as could and would be taken in business, even though French and Russian armies were contending all through the country. But the Bill proposed by the Government fulfilled none of these conditions. It was a Bill to prolong, if not perpetuate, a system which possessed none of them. The present German paper currency is provided by thirty-two banks scattered through the Empire, whose circulation is regulated by a most confusing set of particular Bank statutes and local laws. Sometimes the circulation bears one proportion to the capital and sometimes another; sometimes a specified proportion of the notes are to be kept in gold or silver; sometimes a fixed sum can be issued without being represented in gold and silver, but all above that sum must be so represented. And this variety of issue the Bill of the German Government proposed to deal with in a very complex manner, of which the following is a short outline, and the detail of which will be found in the copy of the Bill which we printed a fortnight since. First, it fixed in a peculiar way an amount of notes which each existing bank might issue without any tax; secondly, it enacted that such

bank shall pay 1 per cent. on the amount which according to a recent average it had in circulation beyond that sum; thirdly, that it should pay 5 per cent. on all notes which it might hereafter issue exceeding that average; and then it divided such banks into three classes:—1. Those which were only to do local business, and these, subject to the first provision as to additional issues, it leaves pretty much as it found them. 2. Those which were to be allowed to establish branches out of their locality—that is, out of the particular State of Germany which formerly authorised them. These, it said, must never allow their note issue to exceed their capital, must keep one-third of that note issue in gold, must have an agency to pay their notes at Berlin and one of two other towns, and must also accept in payment not only its own, but the notes of all other authorised banks. 3. Those which might do business all over the Empire; and these, besides being subject to the same conditions and restrictions as the second class, are only to discount bills with three signatures, and only to lend on certain specified securities in prescribed ways. They are also obliged to publish a weekly account, and to publish their rate for loans and discounts. No new Bank of Issue was to be founded except by a special Act of the Imperial Legislature.”

The Alsace-Lorraine Loan Bill elicited one of the Chancellor's incisive utterances; the immediate point in debate being the amount of endowment to be given to the Strasburg University, which the Alsatian deputies complained of as too high. “The question before us,” said the Prince, “concerns the interests of the Empire; it is not a question of Alsace-Lorraine. The university is to serve Imperial purposes. In the well-fought war, in which we had to defend our existence, we conquered the Provinces for the Empire. It was not for Alsace-Lorraine that our soldiers shed their blood. We take our stand upon the interests of the Empire and Imperial policy. Upon those grounds Alsace-Lorraine was annexed, and not for the sake of Alsace-Lorraine's ecclesiastical interests. We have in the Empire other grounds of action than those gentlemen have whose past leads them to Paris and whose present conducts them to Rome. We have to think of the Empire; and for that purpose it is that we have summoned representatives from the annexed provinces to Berlin. My views respecting an Alsace-Lorraine Parliament which were at first too sanguine, are still entertained by me in principle, but they have been modified since I have become acquainted with the attitude of the Alsace-Lorraine deputies present here. Such a Parliament would lead to continual agitation, and, perhaps, endanger the maintenance of peace. It would be difficult to set aside such an institution if created by legislative means, and, therefore, that method of creating it could not be adopted. In school matters we have energetically interfered, but we shall, no doubt, have to take still more vigorous steps. We could not permit elements to exist in the schools, which labour, I will not exactly say, to make the

children stupid, but yet which take care that people do not become too wise. My policy in regard to Alsace-Lorraine will always be guided by the interests of the Empire and its safety, and I shall not be frightened from my course by reproaches, threats, intimidation, or persuasion; but before I can decisively advance further on my course, I must be convinced that there are elements which can be trusted. We may expect better discernment from the rising generation, and we must therefore see that good schools are provided."

This Bill also was referred to a committee.

Immediately afterwards the Prince had a more active encounter with his enemies of the Centre Faction. The subject of debate was the estimates for the Committee of the Federal Council. The scene to which it led was a curious one. Scarcely could any French or American Parliamentary incident bear a character of less dignity and self-restraint. The Bavarian Clerical deputy, Dr. Joerg, had vehemently and bitterly attacked the policy of the Imperial Chancellor, remarking that in consequence of Russia holding aloof, Prince Bismarck had been proved to have made a *fiasco* in the question of intervention in Spain. He asked whether any functions were performed by the Committee of the Federal Council, which should exist, according to the Constitution, for the consideration of matters of foreign policy?

Prince Bismarck replied that this committee existed, received communication of all important despatches, and met as often as it was called together by its president, the Bavarian representative. Nothing was concealed from any of the Federal Governments. He most emphatically repelled the suspicion which was drawn, like a red thread, through the speech of Dr. Joerg, that the rights of the Federal States are not sufficiently protected by their representatives in the Federal Council. Adverting to another point of Dr. Joerg's speech, he said there had never been any idea of intervening in Spain. When he was apprised of the murder of Captain Schmidt, he said to himself that such a thing would not have happened to a British, French, or American subject. He remembered the humiliations imposed upon Germans in former times, and he considered that the period had arrived for Germany to avenge such attacks. He added:—"The only way of helping Spain was to recognise the elements in the country which were disposed to restore public order. This Germany did in conjunction with most of the European Powers. Russia was less affected by Spanish affairs. Germany had to respect the decision of Russia, as she respects every opinion of a foreign Power, and especially the opinion of a Power with which she has lived for a century in intimate friendship. If the previous speaker's darts are directed against that friendship, they will miss their aim. We tower above such missiles. The *fiasco* which I am said to have made I can quietly bear. The preceding speaker also alluded to the attempt on my life at Kissingen and designated Kullmann as a madman. He

was not a madman. You don't want to have anything in common with Kullmann? That I comprehend; but he clings tightly to your coat-tails nevertheless. I asked him myself, 'Why did you wish to kill me, who had done nothing to you?' He replied, 'On account of the Church laws, and because you have insulted my fraction.' I asked 'Which is your fraction?' and he answered, 'The Centre Fraction.' Here cheers and great tumult ensued. "You may thrust Kullmann away," cried the Prince, "he nevertheless belongs to you." Here immense cheering was heard from the Right and Left, and cries of "Fie! fie!" ("*Pfui*") from the Centre. This interjection according to German ideas, was a peculiarly insulting one, and the President declared the exclamations of the Centre to be unparliamentary.

Prince Bismarck added, "I have no right to censure such exclamations as have been uttered by a member on the Second Centre Bench, but the expression '*Pfui*' is an expression of disgust and contempt. I am myself not a stranger to these feelings, but I am too polite to express them." The uproar continued.

Deputy Windthorst said that in the speech delivered by Prince Bismarck from the balcony of his residence at Kissingen, after the attempt at assassination, the Imperial Chancellor gave the signal for attacks upon the Centre. He was wrong to incite one party against another. They were drifting without that towards a war. The Prince repelled this accusation, saying:—

"Herr Windthorst asserts I gave the *mot d'ordre* to the semi-official Press from the balcony at Kissingen. If Herr Windthorst should ever have the like fate, and chance to be made a target of, he will probably discover that a man is not, immediately afterwards, in a mood to give instructions to the Press. All I said at Kissingen was that the shot was not aimed at me personally, but at the Cause I represented. This is exactly what Kullmann told me himself. He openly gave me to understand that he had never seen me before, that he had no animosity against me, and that his only wish was to benefit his cause. Again, Herr Windthorst charges me with not toning down the language of the semi-official Press after the event. Well, I was at Kissingen at the time—ill, and drinking the waters; but I may ask Herr Windthorst, in my turn, whether he, who was not ill, did anything to influence the language of the Ultramontane journals, which from the Berlin *Germania* down to the Munich *Vaterland* excused the deed. Far from doing anything of the kind, Herr Windthorst has told us himself that if religious excitement drove people to crime, those who caused the excitement had only themselves to thank for it. I promise Herr Windthorst that his remark is not one to be easily forgotten by me. Not satisfied with palliating the attempt, the Ultramontane papers soon afterwards represented the whole thing as a farce got up to promote my personal purposes. I am not personally sensitive; but because I think it my duty to show up the Ultramontane Press, and to disabuse the many honest people who read it, I am,

forsooth, an accomplice of Kullmann! If I believed one half the infamous things laid to my charge by the Ultramontane papers, I really do not know what I might not be tempted to do myself."

Dr. Lasker declared that Herr Windthorst's observations, which were an incitement to war, were unworthy of a representative of the people.

Herr von Forckenbeck, the Speaker, then very gently called Herr Lasker to order for using un-Parliamentary language, while the whole Liberal party thronged round the outspoken deputy to thank him for giving expression to their feelings. Herr Windthorst, with his usual adroitness, tried to diminish the impression produced by bringing forward a variety of insignificant details upon what had just been said and what had not been said. He was instantly taken up by Herr Lasker who reproached him for his usual strategy in parrying home thrusts by suddenly losing himself in a maze of intricate and irrelevant particulars. Personal remarks of a bitter nature closed the sitting.

The next day after this vehement encounter (Dec. 5) the indefatigable Chancellor gave the following lucid account of his policy in suppressing, as he had resolved to do, the post of German ambassador at the Vatican:—

"The Pope," he said, "being a purely religious chief, there was no occasion to keep a permanent political representative at his Court. Things, indeed, might have been left *in statu quo* had not the present Pope, a true member of the Church Militant, thought fit to revive the ancient struggle of the Papacy with the Temporal Power, and more especially with the German Empire. The spirit animating the Papacy in this campaign was too well known to require comment; still, he would tell the House a story which had been long kept secret, but which, after all that had happened, had better be made public. In 1869, when the Wurtemberg Government had occasion to complain of the action of the Papacy, the Wurtemberg Envoy at Munich was instructed to make representations; and in a conversation which passed between the Envoy and the Nuncio, the latter said that the Roman Church was free only in America, and perhaps also in England and in Belgium. In all other countries she had to look to revolution as the sole means of securing her rightful position. This, then, was the view of the priestly diplomatist stationed at Munich in 1869, and formerly representing the Vatican at Paris. Well, the revolution so ardently desired by the Vatican did not come to pass, but we had the war of 1870 instead. Gentlemen, I am in possession of conclusive evidence proving that the war of 1870 was the combined work of Rome and France; that the Œcumenical Council was cut short on account of the war; and that very different votes would have been taken by the Council had the French been victorious. I know from the very best sources that the Emperor Napoleon was dragged into the war very much against his will by the Jesuitical influences rampant at his Court; that he strove hard to resist those influences; that in the eleventh hour he determined

to maintain peace ; that he stuck to this determination for half an hour, and that he was ultimately overpowered by persons representing Rome."

It is said that this speech produced perhaps a deeper impression than any yet delivered by Prince Bismarck since the commencement of the conflict with the Church ; and it was received with intense satisfaction by the large majority of the nation which upheld his policy.

We come now to the arrest and great State Trial which kept the whole attention of Europe on the stretch for the last three months of the year ; in which again it was the German Chancellor's figure that stood forth as the moving spirit of the affair, as the power to whose antagonism the highest rank, the most important trusts, were not impervious. The foe against whom he raised his arm on this occasion, was once his cherished friend, Count Harry von Arnim, who had passed the best years of his life in the diplomatic service of Prussia, and had held posts of the highest importance. He had represented Prussia at Rome while the arrangements were in progress for the Vatican Council of 1870, and was transferred to the embassy at Paris after the war.

The man who was selected to represent his country on two such occasions was necessarily a very distinguished and trusted public servant, and he became, of course, the confidant of Prince Bismarck on many occasions, when the Prince's policy was, not improbably, shifting, and perhaps not over-scrupulous. For many years Count Arnim and his chief were on the best of terms ; but at length the Prince thought Count Arnim was committing himself in a wrong direction. It was rumoured that he had been allying himself too warmly with the party which matured the stroke by which M. Thiers was driven from power. However the precise reason for Count Arnim's being recalled was not officially divulged. To have divulged it would have been highly improper and contrary to all precedent. At one time it was supposed that, in order to smooth his fall, Count Arnim would be sent to the dignified exile of Constantinople ; but for some reason or other this notion was abandoned, and he was left without employment, and in a state of great irritation against Prince Bismarck. In an evil hour he took a method of vengeance which reduced him to the level of M. Benedetti and General della Marmora. He published, or allowed to be published, at Vienna, copies of despatches which he had written at Rome to Prince Bismarck. The only thing that these despatches showed was that Count Arnim had from the outset had a keen and just appreciation of the policy of the Papal Court, and that he might claim credit to himself for having seen into the future earlier and more keenly than his chief. That Count Arnim himself published these despatches, it was perhaps impossible for the German Government to prove, for they had been published at Vienna ; but if Count Arnim had resented, as he ought to have done, the notion that he could have been guilty

of such treachery, he would have done his utmost to aid the Government in discovering the real offender. He remained silent and passive; and the German Government then began to consider what was its position towards him. The first thing to know was, what despatches Count Arnim had got. Prince Hohenlohe, who succeeded him at Paris, was directed to search the archives, and see whether all documents were there that ought to have been there. It was found that a large number were missing. Count Arnim was called on to state what had become of them. As to some, he said that they were mere private documents as to his income and allowances; that these did not concern the State at all, and that he had carried them off as part of his own property. As to others, he said that they were not official letters, but confidential letters on diplomatic matters from Prince Bismarck; that the Prince had chosen to trust him, and had written to him, and that the letters were his property, and he meant to keep them. As to others, he owned that they were State documents, but he protested that he had not an idea of what had become of them. He knew the history of all the missing documents, except of those the abstraction or retention of which might make him criminally responsible. It was not likely that the German Government would be satisfied with such an answer. What owner of property would have been satisfied with a similar one? To avoid scandal, however, the German Government tried to bring about an amicable arrangement, and to induce Count Arnim to give up the missing documents. He positively refused: and then the machinery of the criminal law was set in motion, and he was arrested.

This was the story of the German Government, as communicated to the world through the semi-official newspapers.

A version of the affair favourable to the Count was published in the *Vossische Zeitung*, and was as follows:—

“Up to May, 1872, the two statesmen were on the most intimate terms, and it was intended that the Count should return to Berlin in the capacity of the Prince’s *adlatus*. Count Arnim in private letters and reports from Rome had counselled a rupture with Rome, and the notion of nominating Cardinal Hohenlohe as German ambassador to the Pope originated with him. It was not till September, 1872, that these relations underwent a change. The writer denies that the Count favoured a Legitimist or Orleanist Restoration in France. In October, 1872, he addressed a private letter to Bismarck, in which he stated that M. Thiers appeared to be holding relations with Gambetta, and that the Republican propaganda was everywhere becoming active; and he also called attention to the Republican propaganda in Spain. He added that it was not for Germany to favour the Monarchical form of Government in France, its interests being that there should be a frequent change of administrations, as long as a German garrison remained. Count Arnim did not wish the payment of the indemnity to be hastened, but desired that German troops should evacuate all but a few frontier fortresses, reserving the right, in default of prompt

payment of the instalments, to reoccupy the whole of France up to the sea. He remarked on M. Thiers's love of playing at soldiers. Count Arnim's communications, according to which half Europe was likely to become Republican, excited misgivings in influential quarters. Bismarck, who was then staying at Vaizin, took umbrage at this, and a marked coolness ensued. Nothing was further from Arnim's mind than impeilling Bismarck's position, for, though differing from him on some points of detail, he agreed in the great political ends at which the Chancellor aimed. The gossip of third parties widened the breach, and at length Bismarck wrote a letter expressing regret at the radical difference of opinion between them. Arnim, in reply, begged him to dismiss such ideas, remarking that whatever observations he might offer to him, these did not affect his action in conformity with instructions. From that time Arnim experienced numerous vexations. In January, 1874, when visiting Berlin on account of his daughter's funeral, he was invited by the Secretary of State, Herr von Bulow, to take the newly-created post of Ambassador at Constantinople. He agreed to do so, but on returning to Paris to break up his establishment he received a very abrupt letter, representing that the offer of the Constantinople Embassy was not intended to be serious. Arnim regards all this correspondence as private and refuses to give it up to Bismarck, but does not refuse to give it up to the Tribunal, declaring that he should shortly produce before it the papers in the interest of his own defence, reserving however his right to them, and, if necessary, taking civil proceedings to establish it."

On October 4 Count Arnim was arrested at his country seat, Nassenheide, near Stettin, by a whole official *cortège* sent from Berlin. His house was searched for papers, but the missing documents were not discovered, and he was then carried off and committed to the Berlin Metropolitan prison. Three weeks later, in consideration of the state of his health, he was released on bail; but was subsequently re-arrested, on the discovery, as was supposed, of fresh evidence against him, and confined to his own house.

The trial began on December 9, and lasted till the 15th. Sentence was delivered on the 19th. The charges were advanced by Dr. Tessenorff, the Public Prosecutor. The Court before which the prisoner was tried was the Tribunal of the City of Berlin.

The trial of Count Arnim ended in the condemnation of the accused; but only on a small and technical point, and to a very moderate punishment. There were three things with which he was charged. He was accused of not having restored soon enough one set of official papers, which he ultimately sent to the Foreign Office; of withholding papers belonging to the Foreign Office, which he owned he had in his possession; and of having carried off from Paris another set of papers, of which he would give no account. Further it was alleged that he withheld those which he owned to possessing, and had carried off those for which

he would not account, for the improper purpose of gaining his own political ends by publishing them, or parts of them, when it might serve his purpose to do so. The Tribunal of the City of Berlin held that on the last two heads of accusation, that of withholding papers acknowledged to be in his possession, and that of carrying off papers belonging to the Foreign Office, there was not evidence sufficient to make him guilty on a criminal charge. The Court, in an elaborate judgment, traced the line between disciplinary and legal offences. Against discipline Count Arnim had no doubt offended, but that was very different from being legally guilty. The papers which he acknowledged to have, but which he refused to give up, were withheld by him on the ground that they belonged to him. The Court held that, if a diplomatic agent receives a despatch from the Foreign Office merely censuring him personally, the letter belongs to him. It is an admonition for his private guidance. If a despatch is sent giving instructions, but also containing censure, it will depend on the relative quantity of the two ingredients whether the document as a whole is to be considered one of instruction, and therefore public property. The despatches which Count Arnim claimed to retain were despatches partly of instruction and partly of rebuke, and although he might have been wrong in thinking that the quantity of rebuke preponderated, yet it was difficult to say that he did not make the mistake *bonâ fide*; and even if he may have afterwards seen that he was mistaken in his views, this could not be considered to have tainted the proceeding from the outset. As to the papers which he was said to have carried off from Paris, the Court held that there was no evidence to show that they were not still in Paris, or that, if they had been carried off, it was Count Arnim who abstracted them. Nor was there any legal proof that Count Arnim meant to make the improper use suggested of any documents he might hold. It was shown that he had on one occasion got a statement as to himself inserted in a Belgian paper, that he had negotiated for the purchase of a newspaper, and that he had probably had some communications with a Vienna editor; but what those communications were was not shown. A legal tribunal could not infer from these things that he had withheld or abstracted public documents with a view to publish them. There remained only the first head of accusation. When he left Paris, Count Arnim took with him a series of despatches about ecclesiastical matters which he said he considered not suited for the perusal of his successor at the Embassy, who was a Catholic. He took these despatches with him to Berlin, thence to Carlsbad. On being asked for them, he first said that he did not think he was bound to give them up; but a day or two afterwards he wrote to say that, if the Foreign Office was of opinion that the despatches in question belonged to it, he would not dispute the views of the Foreign Office, but would restore them; and this accordingly he did. The Court held that he must have known that these despatches belonged to the Foreign Office, and that it was within his discretion

to bring them to Berlin instead of leaving them at Paris, but that he could have no legal right to take them to Carlsbad. He had thus made himself guilty of the offence of removing public documents; and accordingly he was sentenced to three months' imprisonment, the imprisonment he had already undergone counting as one month of the term.

From this sentence both the Public Prosecutor and Count Arnim decided to appeal.

But more important and interesting than the direct issue of the trial was the revelation made during its course, of the sagacity and breadth of statesmanship with which Prince Bismarck had guided the course of affairs as between Germany and her beaten foe, when the tendencies of his uncomplying ambassador were persistently showing themselves in favour of the party which represented the sympathies of Ultramontanism. The style in which the two statesmen wrote to each other was, to say the least, singular, and it gave a curious picture of the sort of relations tolerated in German official life.

Count Arnim, when he was rebuked and informed that his views on every subject of importance were shallow and foolish, instead of resigning, held on and offered more views of the same quality. Prince Bismarck, instead of recalling Count Arnim, taunted and abused him. Prince Bismarck could not recall Count Arnim without pressing the Emperor harder than he cared to press him; and Count Arnim felt that he could not be recalled easily, and thought that he, too, had friends at Court, on whose support he could reckon. One great advantage for Bismarck the Arnim trial had. It showed his countrymen what was the foreign policy which at a most important crisis had been pursued on their behalf, and what was the foreign policy which they had escaped having pursued on their behalf. If Prince Bismarck had not been at the head of affairs, Count Arnim might have been, and Germany now knew not only what Prince Bismarck had done, but what he had averted. The foreign policy of the nation was shown, so far as it could be judged from the despatches published during the recent trial, to be in the hands of a man, wise, moderate, far-seeing, and bold; and the happiness and prosperity of Germans were just now so bound up with the soundness of their foreign policy, that they might well rejoice to have come to know this, although they had come to know it in a questionable manner, at the expense of Count Arnim's personal liberty.

That just between the close of the trial and the sentence, when the great majority of his countrymen were thus impressed with Bismarck's sagacity and energy, as revealed in his despatches, and his popularity stood unusually high, it should be announced that the great Chancellor had resigned office, was a startling surprise. A momentary contradiction of his political will had angered him, and perhaps he shrewdly relied on the feeling in his favour to shew how indispensable he really was to the nation's

sense of need. The contradiction in question arose out of the affair of one Herr Majuncke, an Ultramontane Deputy, who had been lately imprisoned for press offences. By a vote of the Diet, in which the Liberals made common cause with the clerical party, it was decided to liberate Majuncke, on the ground that to imprison a Deputy while the Diet was sitting was illegal; and Dr. Leonhardt, the Minister of Justice, concurred in the decision.

This it was which induced the Chancellor to tender his resignation, saying that if the Liberal party impeded his course he could not act. But neither would the Emperor hear of his resignation, nor the party which was mainly devoted to him; and a visit from the Crown Prince was remarked as an additional token of the general confidence reposed in the great statesman. On the 18th, when an animated debate took place on the Secret Service Fund of the Foreign Office, Herr von Bennigsen, a leader of the Ministerial party, expressly declared that "his political friends would grant the amount demanded, were it only to display their unbounded confidence in the man who directs the policy of the Empire. After the recent publication of his despatches," he said, "All German patriots would honour and support the Chancellor more enthusiastically than ever. The sterling sense, manliness, and unalterable devotion to peace manifested in those documents reflected credit upon the Minister and the country he served. The Secret Service Money was principally employed in warding off the restless attacks of the Ultramontane party. To the Minister who had written those memorable despatches the money asked for might be confidently entrusted."

Herr Windthorst, who represented the Ultramontane interest on the occasion, said he might speak the more openly, as he regarded the Chancellor's alleged intention to resign as a mere *ouage dans un verre d'eau*. But though Windthorst tried hard to enlist the attention of the House, his usual courage and versatility failed him in face of the certain and crushing defeat his party was about to sustain. The Secret Service Fund was eventually granted with all votes against the Ultramontanes, Poles, and Socialists. The result was immediately telegraphed to the Palace, where a Cabinet Council was being held by the Emperor. A little later Prince Bismarck appeared in Parliament, to all appearance more powerful, more trusted, than ever.

Yet this trusted Minister was not wrong when he had said of himself, at the beginning of the year, that he was the "best hated man of any country in Europe." Those who did hate him, hated him with a will; and when the Prince himself, at a Parliamentary dinner, stated that he had been warned by the police of a fresh plot against his life, and cautioned not to venture into the streets, except in a closed carriage, attention was roused to a ramification of conspiracy, of which but a clue here and there had been as yet detected, but whose underground bearings appeared to stretch beyond the boundaries of Germany.

CHAPTER IV.

AUSTRO-HUNGARY.—Church Legislation—Resignation of War Minister—Visits of the Emperor to Russia and to Bohemia—Ex-Emperor Ferdinand—Austrian Polar Expedition—New lands discovered—Autumn Session of *Reichsrath*—Ministerial Crisis in Hungary—Debate on Hungarian Finance.

ITALY.—Church and education—Bill for fortifications—Finance debates and Ministerial defeats—Twenty-fifth anniversary of King's accession—Brigandage in Central Italy, Naples, and Sicily *Camorra and Mafia*.

SPAIN.—Meeting of Cortes—General Pavia's *Pronunciamiento*—Castelar retires—Government of Marshal Serrano—Dissolution of Cortes—Fall of Cartagena—Carlist war in the Northern Provinces—Siege of Bilbao—Battle of Somorrostro—Marshal Concha's campaign—Relief of Bilbao—Ministerial changes—Battle of Estella, or Peña Muro—Death of Concha—Carlist cruelties—German remonstrances with France—Recognition of Serrano's Government by all Powers but Russia—Cuenca taken by the Carlists—Progress of the war—Ministerial changes—War on the Bidassoa—Siege of Irun—Carlist defeat—Inactivity of Republicans—Marshal Serrano takes the command—Alphonsist movement—Prince of Asturias proclaimed King as Alfonso XII—New Ministry.

PORTUGAL.—Elections—Fêtes—"Iberian Union."

AUSTRIA.

THE deliberations of the newly reformed Legislature at Vienna, were looked forward to with no small interest. The first subject brought before it was one of special moment, being the regulation of the relations between the Church and State, rendered necessary by the late progress of Ultramontane aggression, in the opinion of a Ministry formed on Liberal principles. The religious measures introduced into the *Reichsrath* by the Government of Prince Auerberg on January 21, were four in number.

The first, in laying down new provisions for the external relations of the Catholic Church, aimed at abolishing the last vestiges of the Concordat, which had hitherto remained partially in force. In regulating the position of clerical functionaries, it proposed to subject the appointment of priests to the sanction of Government, and reserved to the latter the right, under certain conditions, of demanding their dismissal. It went on to prescribe the limits of spiritual authority exercised by priests; to lay down rules for the education and training of candidates for the priesthood; to modify the rights of ecclesiastical bodies, the right of patronage, the rights of congregations; and to provide for the proper appropriation of endowments, reserving to the State the supreme control. The second measure dealt exclusively with the monastic orders. It proposed to place in the hands of Government the right to permit or prohibit the erection of convents and monasteries, leaving members free to quit them at their own

choice, by simply making a declaration to the purpose before a civil magistrate. The third Bill provided for the taxation of clerical endowments, imposing upon them a progressive tax of $\frac{1}{2}$ to $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the proceeds to be appropriated to the assistance of the lower clergy. The fourth Bill related to the recognition of separate religious bodies, facilitating the establishment of such bodies, and in so far benefiting the Old Catholic community, though by no means to the extent desired by its members.

The omission of a Civil Marriage Bill was considered by the Liberals as a serious defect in the programme, and as hardly sufficiently supplied by a provision enabling Government to recognise dissenting bodies, under certain conditions.

Though these laws were of a far more moderate character than the laws enacted under the Falck Legislation in Prussia, they were a sore mortification to the head of the Church Catholic, of which the Empire of the Hapsburgs had been in all time past so firm a stronghold. On March 9, Pius IX. addressed an Encyclical letter to the Austrian Bishops, condemning the new Ecclesiastical Bills, and declaring that their object was to bring the Church into most ruinous subjection to the arbitrary power of the State. He admitted their moderate character as compared with those recently passed in Prussia, but declared them to partake of the same spirit and character, and to be not less calculated to pave the way for the destruction of the Church. He renewed his protest against the rupture of the Concordat of 1855; described the assertion that a change was brought about in the Church by the dogma of Infallibility, as a pernicious pretext; and expressed his hopes that the Bishops would protect the rights of the Church. He, at the same time, announced that in a fresh letter to the Emperor Francis Joseph, dated the 7th inst., he had adjured His Majesty not to allow the Church to be handed over to dishonourable servitude, and his Catholic subjects to be visited by the deepest affliction.

After four days' discussion the general debate, on the principle of the Bill, closed on March 9, in the Lower House of the Reichsrath, Government obtaining a majority of 224 votes against 71. The debate was a very interesting one. At the head of the list of speakers against the Bill was Count Hohenwart, and he was followed by almost all the more prominent champions of the Clerical party, with a well combined array of objections. Each speaker had chosen the line of argument best suited to his own powers. Count Hohenwart, as the Statesman, chose the theme of a free Church in a free State, of which he saw a violation in the Bill, which he thought so much the more glaring, as one paragraph of the general Constitution distinctly guaranteed the freedom and independence of the Church in her own internal affairs. More successful in his way was Father Greuter from Tyrol, the pugnacious and energetic Clerical champion. As the man of the people he spoke of the feelings of the Catholics, which were deeply wounded by this interference of Parliament and Government with

the most sacred convictions of those millions of Catholics who composed the overwhelming majority of the peoples of Austria. Prince Czartoryski stood up as the champion of provincial rights. All that referred to matters of religion and worship, belonged, he said, to the Provincial Diets, not to the Central Legislature. A layman, Weiss von Starkenfels, took it upon himself to defend the thesis that all power comes from God, and that obedience to God must go before obedience to men. This concluded the series of speeches against the Bill on the first day.

The debates of the second and third days were less exciting ; but on the fourth and last, the Ministerial statements warmed up the House to enthusiasm.

Often had the Ministry as a whole, and, above all, Dr. Strey-mayer, the Minister of Public Worship, had to bear the imputation of being too indulgent, and too little energetic in repelling the encroachments attempted by the Catholic hierarchy. It was said that they seemed always ready to overlook any little ebullitions of episcopal *frondeurs*; that they were endeavouring to find a *modus vivendi* with the Tyrolese clericals about the interpretation of the laws on schools; and they were strongly suspected of not being heartily in favour of the civil marriage legislation. The debate of March 9 swept away all these misgivings. The Minister of Public Worship, while disclaiming any intentions on the part of the Government of encroaching on the sacred domain of the Church, expressed the firm resolution not to allow religion to be used for political purposes fraught with danger to the State. If the speech of Dr. Strey-mayer warmed up the House, the few words by the Minister President, Prince Auersperg, in reply to divers remarks made during the debate, couched as they were in happy epigrammatic language, produced quite a burst of enthusiasm. It was language that came from the heart and appealed to the heart, especially the concluding passages, in which he replied to the threats uttered that the law would not be accepted by the people, and would be opposed by them. He did not believe, he said, that this threat was a serious one, but, should it turn out true, he assured the House that the present Government would have energy enough to accept the struggle. It was able to do so, because it had never provoked conflicts; whenever it could it had avoided them. All the more, therefore, was it its duty to accept the struggle if forced upon it, and he hoped that in such a case it would be able to end it in favour of the authority of the State.

For minutes after, the House and galleries rung with the applause which this enunciation by the Minister President had elicited, and its effect was visible afterwards in the majority which passed the Bill, and which was very much larger than any one anticipated, being 224 votes against 71. The debate thus ended in a great triumph for the Ministry.

By the middle of May the Bills regulating the position of the Roman Catholic Church in Austria, and the contributions to be

made towards an ecclesiastical fund for covering the expenses of Catholic worship, had passed both Houses and received the Imperial sanction. Although the Pope expressed his disapproval of the legislation, and the representatives of the hierarchy in the Upper House made their dissent clear in every way, there was no bitterness of antagonism, as in Prussia. The Pope knew that Francis Joseph was a good Catholic at heart, and he therefore dealt tenderly with him in his correspondence on the subject; and, indeed, when the Emperor visited his Bohemian dominions in September, the answer he gave to the address of the Cardinal Archbishop of Prague—an answer which was not reported in the official papers—gave serious apprehensions to some of his subjects of his personal tendency towards Ultramontane views. He regretted, he said, not being able to do for the defence of the Church what the promptings of his heart impelled. And, reporting the state of things towards the close of the year, we may say that very little, if any, opposition has as yet been made on the part of the bishops to the application of the new Ecclesiastical Laws passed in the last Session. This is attributed mainly to the firm but conciliatory manner in which the civil authorities have exercised the powers conferred upon them by the new laws. There have been, indeed, minor differences, as it could not well be otherwise; but they have hitherto been amicably settled, and nowhere has there been a trace shown of that systematic opposition which many people expected and predicted. The bishops fought against the Bill with all the means at their disposal; but after it had become the law of the country they submitted to it with a good grace. According to the data hitherto collected, the tax on ecclesiastical benefices is estimated to produce about 100,000*l.*, which is to go towards improving the position of the parochial clergy.

The only other political event which made much impression at Vienna this summer was the unexpected resignation of Baron Kuhn, the Minister of War. It was unexpected at least by the public, who had not been aware of the departmental opposition which the army reforms of the Baron had roused against him, nor had known that he had tendered his resignation to the Emperor once already, and had been commanded to continue in office as there was no one then to replace him. Baron Koller, Commanding-General and Civil Governor of Bohemia, now succeeded to his post as Minister of War.

The general affairs of Austria both external and internal this year were very tranquil. A visit of the Emperor to St. Petersburg in February gave rise to various comments and conjectures; but the general feeling was one of satisfaction, in the belief that it indicated the close of that state of chronic hostility which had existed between the Empires of Austria and Russia for the last twenty years, and a further guarantee of that peace which both countries so much needed in order to complete the process of transformation through which they were passing.

The Emperor's visit to Bohemia, in September, afforded a marked and happy contrast to the circumstances attending a similar occurrence six years before, when the discontent and disaffection of the Czech population had made themselves painfully manifest.

On the present occasion it was far otherwise. The Emperor was received at Prague with cordial loyalty; and though the address of the Town Council showed that Czech disaffection was not altogether at an end, yet it evinced a spirit of compromise which gave good hope for the future. While in the neighbourhood of Prague, the Emperor paid a visit to the ancient palace of the kings of Bohemia on the Hradschin, where still, in old age and seclusion and partial imbecility, lived his uncle, the late Emperor Ferdinand, who had abdicated during the troubles of 1848.

The visit was almost an event. For twenty-five years the two monarchs—the one crowned, the other refusing to be so during the lifetime of his predecessor—had not met. The Empress Elizabeth had never seen her uncle. The Empress Anna Maria was the person who did the honours of the reception; for the old Emperor was confined to his apartments.

A very interesting episode of this year's history was the return of the Austrian Polar Expedition after its two years' absence in the regions of ice. The "Tegethoff," a vessel of about 220 tons, and built for the purpose at Bremsenhaven, in Norway, had quitted that port on June 13, 1872, with the object of finding a north-easterly passage towards the coast of Siberia. In command of it were Lieut. Weyprecht and Lieut. Payer. The crew consisted of twenty-four men. It started in the wake of the German Expedition of 1871, got up at the initiative of the well-known geographer Petermann, according to whose supposition Nova Zembla, the shores of which are reached by the Gulf Stream, offered the best chances of penetrating towards the North Pole. It was on this track the Expedition started, taking Nova Zembla as the basis for their operations. Losing no time, they made their way towards the end of August some 120 miles north-east to $78^{\circ} 30'$, where the ship was enclosed by the ice. In this position the explorers had to pass the two winters. During the first of these—that of 1872-73—the ship drifted in a north-easterly direction to 73 deg. longitude, Greenwich. In the summer of 1873 it was drifted back in the opposite direction, until, on August 3, the land was sighted which will now be known under the name of Franz-Joseph Land. The southernmost point of it lies in $78^{\circ} 51'$ N. lat. and 59° E. long. In that neighbourhood the Expedition passed the last winter, making a series of astronomical, meteorological, and magnetic observations of great interest. In March and April Lieutenant Payer, one of its two leaders, undertook sledge expeditions through the newly-discovered land. He penetrated up to 82° , or only $40'$ less than Parry in 1827, but he

saw a large expanse of land up to 83°. The land which separates the newly-discovered territory from Greenland is 100 German miles long and 39 broad, and has been named Austria; and the most northerly point sighted, Cape Vienna. The country has the same character as Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla. It shows elevations, but is on the whole flat, and covered with glaciers which reach down to the sea. On May 20 the Expedition left their ship, the "Tegethoff," the position of which had become hopeless. It had been raised seven feet on the ice and made to heel over. It being thus beyond the control of the twenty men of the Expedition, they left in three sledge boats and the sledges carrying provisions. On June 3 they were seven nautical miles from the ship. They could not penetrate through the drift ice, and a fourth sledge boat was fetched from the ship. Up to July 15 they toiled southwards over ice fields and through narrow channels in the ice; but strong southerly winds foiled their attempts, and they found themselves again at the same distance from the ship. Then at last northerly winds set in, which enabled them to reach the coast of Nova Zembla, where they were taken up by the Russian whaler, which brought them to Vardøe.

Lieutenant Payer published in the *Neue Freie Presse* the following account of the territory discovered by himself and his companions:—"The whole territory, so far as it has been explored, is about the same size as Spitzbergen, and is composed of several considerable districts—the principal being Wilczek-land on the east and Zichy-land on the west—which are penetrated by numerous fiords and surrounded by many islands. A huge channel, Austria Sound, divides these masses lengthwise, proceeds northwards from Cape Hansa, and bends to the north-east under the 82nd degree of north latitude below Crown Prince Rudolph Land into a wide arm of the sea, which we were able to follow up as far as Cape Pesth in the extreme north. The predominating rock is dolerite. Its horizontal stages and steep truncated conical hills, which remind one strongly of the ambas of Abyssinia, give the country a special character of its own. It is evidently of the same geological formation as north-eastern Greenland. The average height of the mountains is from 2,000 to 3,000 feet; it is only in the south-west that they attain the height of about 5,000 feet. All the deep depressions between the mountain chains are covered with glaciers of such gigantic dimensions as are only seen in the Arctic regions. The coasts are bounded by precipices of from 100 feet to 200 feet. . . . The vegetation is far inferior to that of Greenland, Spitzbergen, and Nova Zembla, and there is, perhaps, no poorer country in the world in this respect. Drift-wood, mostly rather old, was frequently met with, but nowhere in any great quantity. The land is apparently uninhabited, and in the south there are scarcely any animals to be seen except Polar bears. . . . We did not meet in the whole course of our explorations with a single place which could be used as a winter harbour by any future expedition. In

proceeding northwards along the western coast of Crown Prince Rudolph Land, a remarkable change manifested itself in the natural objects surrounding us. A blue-black watery sky appeared in the north, dull yellow mists collected under the sun, the temperature rose, the snow softened, and the rocks were covered with thousands of birds. Traces of bears, hares, and foxes were everywhere to be seen, and seals were lying on the ice. . . . Our footing now became uncertain; the ice, which was only from one to two inches thick, bent under us, and after passing Cape Alken we came to the open water. Before us was the dark sea, with its icebergs resting upon it like pearls. Heavy clouds hung down from above, through which the sun's rays shone straight on the glittering water; just above the sun was a second fainter sun, and the ice-covered mountains of Crown Prince Rudolph Land stood out with a rosy glow upon them from the undulating mists. . . . The sea was covered here and there with thin ice; and drift ice of moderate thickness extended from the west to the north-east on the horizon. Taking the early time of the year into consideration, and the fact that a west wind was blowing, there seemed to be no reason why this part of the sea should not be navigable in the summer. . . . A ship brought to the northern coast of Zichyland might, so far as we could see, proceed northward for a distance of from ten to twenty naval miles; but to do this it would first have to get through Austria Sound, which is a hundred miles long. . . . What, however, was much more interesting to us than the useless question of the navigability of this remote portion of the Polar Sea, was the fact that we saw before us new and extensive territories which, covered with mountains, could be followed from the north-west to the north-east, and to above the 83rd degree of north latitude. The most northerly landmark of this territory is an imposing elevation, which we called Cape Vienna. . . . What we observed seemed to bear out to a certain extent Petermann's theory of an inner Arctic archipelago. It is remarkable that there are numberless icebergs in these Polar sounds, while there are none in the sea of Nova Zembla. There is no positive proof of the existence of currents, but the absence of icebergs in the Nova Zembla sea certainly seems to indicate that they drift to the north."

The return of Lieutenants Weyprecht and Payer, with their gallant companions, to the Austrian capital was made the occasion of much joyous felicitation in the month of September. On arriving at Vienna, the explorers had a most cordial reception from the civil and military authorities, together with deputations from local bodies, and from the public generally. They drove in carriages through the streets, and the houses along the route were decorated in honour of their return. An extraordinary sitting of the Geographical Society was held, at which the Imperial Crown Prince Rudolph and all the Ministers of State were present. The President read a letter from the President of the Royal Geo-

graphical Society in London, in which Lieutenants Payer and Weyprecht were spoken of as standing in the first rank of Arctic explorers. The two gallant navigators were decorated with the Order of Leopold by the Emperor. It is understood that a second Arctic exploring expedition, to start next summer, is being organised.

On the opening of the Autumn Session of the Reichsrath, on October 20, the Minister of Finance presented the estimates for 1875, and made his financial statement. The expenditure was estimated at 381,000,000 florins, the revenue at 369,000,000, leaving a deficit of 12,000,000 florins. He announced that there was a falling off in the proceeds, above all of indirect taxation; an effect of the financial and economical crisis of the previous year; that the cash reserve, which served in former years to cover the deficit, was exhausted; and that the next year's deficit was to be covered by an issue of rente.

These estimates were passed by the Lower House two months later.

The last two sittings of the Reichsrath before its adjournment for the Christmas recess, were interesting. In the first of them the social or workman's question was brought on. The association called *Volkstimme*, or "popular voice," had a petition presented to the House, in which they asked that Workmen's Chambers should be erected, which, like the existing Chambers of Commerce and Industry, should be entitled to elect a certain number of members to the Reichsrath. The Committee appointed to report on the petition proposed—first, the institution of such Workmen's Chambers wherever they might seem called for in the workman's interest, but without the right of sending their representatives to the Reichsrath; and then the passing of a Factory Bill on the model of the English Act, to contain provisions about the working hours of women and children under a certain age, and sanitary regulations of factories and workshops. Both proposals were accepted; the proposal to give these Workmen's Chambers the right of representation being rejected. The interest of the sitting was, however, not so much in the resolutions passed, as in the debate, which brought on the question of Universal Suffrage. This measure found advocates on the two extreme sides of the House, the Democrats and the Federals, both of whom see in Universal Suffrage the most appropriate means to realise their views. The champion of Federalism made no secret of it, indeed, for he declared that by the introduction of Universal Suffrage alone would the Slavonic population of Austria acquire that influence in the affairs of Austria to which it was entitled by its numbers. Dr. Krouawetter, the champion of Austrian, or rather of Vienna suburb democracy, took a more abstract point of view, and argued from the innate rights of men and the great principles of 1789. Although both these extreme views were brilliantly refuted by Baron Walterskirchen and Baron Plener, the Reporter of the

Committee, the general tenour of the debate, as well as the Resolutions passed, will go far to convince the mass of workmen in Austria that though not represented directly in the Reichsrath, there is an earnest desire in the Legislature of Austria to take their interests into consideration.

The final sitting of the House was taken up by the decision of the long-pending question of the legality of the election of the Great Proprietors of Upper Austria. It had been questioned because the holders of clerical benefices, the revenue of which is derived from land, had been admitted to vote. The question was first brought forward last year at the General Election in Bohemia, where, at the initiative of Dr. Herbst, the leader of the Left in the Reichsrath, the holders of such benefices were not admitted to the vote. To be consistent, the party could not but apply the same rule to Upper Austria. The Government and the Centre, consisting mainly of the representatives of the Great Proprietors, were against such a general application of the rule which had been laid down in one province. They were joined by the clerical fraction and the Poles; but as the more advanced fraction which is against everything, favouring the clericals, joined the Left, this latter carried its point by a few votes. This putting down of the Ministry by the bulk of its usual supporters rather jarred upon the harmony which had otherwise reigned between the two during the Session.

A Ministerial crisis, which had been pending in Hungary since the latter part of 1873, resulted in the formation of a new Cabinet in the month of March this year. It will be instructive to condense from the account given by the *Times* correspondent, some account of the political situation in that country, as gradually developed since the institution of the Dual Monarchy.

When the national compromise was made with Austria in 1867, two parties and a fraction stood face to face with each other. The first party was the Right, which, under the leadership of Déák, had carried the compromise by a large majority. Next to it, the Left, under the joint leadership of Ghyczy and Tisza, admitted the necessity of closer federation with Austria, but thought that a modification might have been found by which Hungary might have had a more independent control over her own affairs. Although much smaller in numbers than the Right, the Left, containing as it did some men of the highest Parliamentary capacity, with great influence in the central portion of Hungary, the stronghold of the sturdiest portion of the Magyar race, and commanding as it did more or less the whole Protestant interest, both Lutheran and Calvinist, might well claim the position of a Parliamentary party. Outside of both was a small fraction of Irreconcilables, or Extreme Left, who would hear of no compromise, but were for a mere personal union of Austria and Hungary under the same Sovereign, such as had been devised in 1848: wherefore this party called itself likewise the Party of

1848. It was a curious mixture, consisting of a number of county politicians and agitators, dating from 1848, when they had acquired a transient notoriety; of emigrants returned home more or less imbued with the doctrines of Western democracy; and, gravitating towards these, of the representatives of Serb and Rouman nationality, who saw in the compromise between Austria and Hungary only an attempt to establish the supremacy of the German race on one side, and of the Hungarian on the other, to the detriment of the other races which went to compose the Empire.

The Left, or more moderate fraction of the Opposition, was thus from the first in a rather awkward position. While the Right, or Déak party, took its stand on the compromise of 1867, and the extreme Left fraction stood up for the establishment of the personal union as devised in 1848, the moderate Left was as it were in the air between the two, without any positive policy. It accepted neither solution, yet itself had none to offer. The awkwardness of the situation was felt; and in order to escape from it the more energetic of the two leaders of the party took the first opportunity in the spring of 1868 to draw up a programme. This programme scarcely improved the position of the party, for it was again negative rather than positive. While admitting that certain interests existed in common between Austria and Hungary, it condemned the Delegations—that is, the Commissions deputed by the Austrian Reichsrath on one side, and the Hungarian Parliament on the other, as agreed upon in 1867—without proposing any other mode of discussing the nation's affairs common to both. Similarly, the programme admitted the necessity of common defence; but it condemned a common army, standing up for a separate Hungarian force, without proposing, however, any mode in which two separate armies could co-operate in the work.

The result of this undecided policy became apparent in the general election of 1869, the first after the compromise of 1867. This was the first opportunity the country had had of expressing an opinion on the compromise. It was decidedly favourable; for, though some seats were lost, a majority of about seventy still remained in a House of 430, for the Right, or Déak party. But the losses of the ruling party did not prove the gains of the Left, which lost more in proportion; while the extreme fraction came out with a decided gain. The country had shown that it understood the policy of a compromise with Austria, and had found a *modus vivendi* which seemed to work fairly; and that it likewise understood those who were for no connection at all with Austria except through the person of the same Sovereign; but that it had no inclination for a policy which admitted the necessity of regulating some affairs in common with Austria, but at the same time insisted on the full freedom of Hungary to manage all her affairs independently.

At the last general election, in 1872, the country spoke more positively than before. The majority became larger than it ever

had been, the extreme fraction got a small accession of strength, and all this at the expense of the Left, which from 140 dwindled down to about eighty. Those who had already for some time regarded the position as untenable thought the time come to get out of it by accepting the arrangement with Austria, and taking up a position as a true Parliamentary party; and when they did not succeed in carrying their views, Ghyczy, one of the leaders, and some twenty with him, left the party and formed a new one, which took the name of the Centre.

The schism which had thus occurred in the Left did not remain without influence on the Right. Composed of the most heterogeneous elements, and kept together only by the necessity of defending the compromise with Austria, as the attacks against this compromise relaxed, the different shades of opinion existing within its ranks, came more and more to the foreground. Just about the same time Déak, the leader, who had wielded so long an undisputed authority, was laid on a sick-bed. His authority had been too absolute to allow any one to take his place. The Ministry, deprived of the countenance of his authority, was less and less able to keep the reins; and thus the curious spectacle came to be seen of a Ministry with a nominal majority of about 100, and yet which never knew when it might be defeated by an adverse vote. It was tolerated rather than supported by the party which was fast being decomposed into fractions, almost more hostile towards each other than towards the more moderate shades of the Opposition.

Under these circumstances, the only way out of the difficulty appeared to be a coalition, or rather the formation of a new party strong enough to carry on the Government; and on March 10, of the present year, the Emperor came down, at the request of the late Minister President, who tendered his resignation, and received the mission to try to bring about a coalition with the Centre and the Left. The question was how to find a mode by which the compromise concluded with Austria should remain intact, and at the same time to secure an honourable retreat for the Left, which had so long agitated against this compromise as a bad one. Tisza, the leader of the Left, proposed that he should be allowed to make a declaration that he still believed a better compromise might have been made, and was still practicable, but that he did not think this the time to press the question, reserving to himself, however, the right, when he thought the time had come, to make proposals to the Ministry and to His Majesty with regard to a revision of the compact with Austria. But neither M. Szlavy nor Count Andrassy thought this proposal acceptable. They had, indeed, no objection to M. Tisza declaring that he thought a better compromise might have been possible; but they required that as long as he remained in the Ministry he should engage to make no proposals for the alteration of the existing compact. When the internal questions, for the solution of which the coali-

tion was desirable, were settled; if, then, he should think the time was come for proposing changes in the international compact, he might do so, but this could be only after he should have left the Ministry. The difference was not one of words alone, but of principle, for it amounted to this; whether a Ministry was to be formed, if not for the special purpose of making alterations in the compromise with Austria, at all events a Ministry which one of the prominent members of the Cabinet entered on the express understanding that he might make proposals tending to such alterations. This would have been, as it were, to reopen the whole question between Austria and Hungary, in the settlement of which, by the agreement of 1867, the great majority of the people on both sides had acquiesced.

An understanding with the Left being thus impossible, for the moment at any rate, there remained still the chances of a coalition with the Centre. There were no original differences to be apprehended with that body, the reason of its secession from the Left having simply been that it had acquiesced in the existing arrangement with Austria. Still the first attempt made by M. Szlavy failed, owing to a rather exaggerated delicacy on the part of the leader, M. Ghyezy, who feared that his acceptance of office might cause his secession from the Left to be misinterpreted; and M. Szlavy, seeing that his plan of a coalition Ministry had failed, begged His Majesty to entrust some one else with the formation of a Government.

M. Bitto, formerly Minister of Justice, and of late President of the Lower House, was then called in to form a Ministry, and he proved more successful in the task than his predecessor. Twice twenty-four hours were sufficient to convince M. Ghyezy and his party that a mistake had been committed in not accepting office. His patriotism was appealed to, and he yielded to the solicitations made to him from the most influential quarters. Though the party he brought with him was small, his authority as one of the old Parliamentary champions, and only second to Déak in popularity all over the country, could not but be looked upon as a great accession of strength to any Government.

In the meantime, considerable satisfaction was felt by the public at the solution which had been found, for it had put a stop to the process of disintegration which was going on in the majority, and which would soon have made a strong Government impossible.

The new Ministry had a tough battle to fight when the financial proposals were brought forward towards the end of the year. The Opposition thought fit to raise the question of confidence, and for two days made a desperate onslaught on the Government. Ghyezy, the Minister of Finance, who, following his better convictions, had left the ranks of the Opposition last year, was attacked, and bitter were the things he had to listen to while passages of speeches delivered by him in the House were read to

prove an inconsistency between his views once and now ; but more than anything else he was reproached with the want of a detailed plan, according to which the balance between revenue and expenditure could be restored. As to the first point, he said he could leave it to posterity to judge whether he had not acted rightly in giving up a barren opposition directed against the compromise with Austria after this had been consolidated, especially considering that a bilateral contract could not be altered by the Hungarian Diet alone. As to his plan for restoring the equilibrium in the finances, he confessed his inability to invent a mode by which this could be done suddenly. He had proposed a series of reductions and of financial measures by which he thought a considerable step would have been taken in that direction, and this was as much as could be done safely. Next year more might be done. The plan of thus ordering the finances gradually and systematically was not the most brilliant way of dealing with the difficulty, but he considered it the only practical way. The House endorsed his opinion, for it gave the Ministry the authorisation asked for by a majority of 102 out of 390 votes. Another question was to give power to levy the contingent of 40,000 recruits which Hungary has to furnish in 1875 for the common army. As the law is quite clear on the point, the Bill was passed with an overwhelming majority, only the extreme fraction voting against it. But it brought up the whole question of army organisation, which has more and more pushed itself into the foreground of late.

ITALY.

In Italy this year the general course of affairs was peaceful and prosperous, leaving little for the historian to narrate. The religious movement which was convulsing Germany and other countries besides, and which was watched with eager attention by England and America, was looked upon south of the Alps with perfect indifference. "A free Church in a free State" was the motto of the Italians as a nation, and their practice was to observe the strictest neutrality between the contending parties. In the matter of a Bill on elementary instruction for the people, which was before the Lower House of Parliament in January, the religious question proved, however, not so easy to deal with as had been imagined. The Italians had started in their political career with an unbounded faith in freedom. In a struggle between the priest and the schoolmaster they thought that the issue could not be doubtful, and they did not take into account the material and moral disadvantages under which they appeared in the field. They did not see that the Church had possession on her side ; that she could rely on an old, strong, and compact organisation ; on an army of teachers placed above want by her endowments, revelling in the ease of their claustral life, and free from those

domestic ties and burdens which even in the most advanced and flourishing communities still weigh, and will perhaps for ever weigh upon the ill-paid lay schoolmaster. It was proposed that the State should by this new law take upon itself the management of public instruction, allowing at the same time full and unlimited freedom to private institutions, and recognising as such those ecclesiastical and monastical establishments which in former times monopolised the training of the Italian youth, under the denomination of *Ignorantini*, *Scolopii*, &c. The State itself proclaimed neutrality in all matters connected with creed and worship; it professed to give no religious instruction of any kind, leaving parents to deal with their children in that respect according to their convictions; but with a view to exonerate the public schools from the charge of being immoral as well as Godless, a clause in the Bill under discussion provided that "In all elementary schools, together with the earliest notions respecting the institutions of the State, should be taught the maxims of social justice and morality on which those institutions are founded; and for that purpose a little manual, approved by the Government upon the advice of the Supreme Council of Public Instruction, shall be drawn up and rendered obligatory throughout the kingdom." One of the Deputies belonging to the Clerical Opposition, Bortolucci, presented to the Chamber a dilemma analogous to the one once attributed to Omar, insisting that "either the proposed Manual was good and it could only be the Catechism, or it was not the Catechism, and therefore it must be rejected as necessarily bad;" but the orator's voice was drowned by the uproar of the Chamber, which on the bare mention of "the Gospel" cried out that "this was neither the time nor the place for sermons;" and the Assembly, while approving the clause concerning the introduction of the "Moral Manual" into the public schools, threw the responsibility of dealing with the religious question upon the Municipalities by simply "giving the Communes the power of suppressing religious instruction in the schools."

In March, after a discussion which lasted a whole week, and at one moment threatened the very existence of the Minghetti Administration, the Chamber of Deputies voted almost unanimously the Bill empowering the King's Government to spend 79,700,000 f. (3,188,000*l.*) in works of fortification. This Bill is only part of a great scheme by which the Minister of War, General Ricotti, undertook in 1871 a complete reorganisation of the national defences at an outlay of 317,000,000 f. (12,680,000*l.*). By these means the Minister proposed to enable his country to muster an effective Army of 300,000 men, with a Militia of 200,000, to be recruited at the rate of 60,000 to 65,000 yearly, and maintained at an annual cost of 149,000,000 f. (5,960,000*l.*). This rate of expenditure, however, owing to the rise in price of provisions, had to be increased in the Budget of 1874 to 165,000,000 f. (6,600,000*l.*). The Minister contemplated, be-

sides, employing 317,000,000 f. in the armament and equipment of this force, and in a complete system of fortifications. Of this sum, 43,500,000 f. (1,740,000*l.*) has already been spent. The remaining 274,000,000 f. (10,960,000*l.*) was to be distributed over a period of ten to twelve years. By the present Bill, of the 79,700,000 f. to be spent in fortifications, 16,100,000 f. (644,000*l.*) was to be applied to the fortresses on the frontier; 20,000,000 f. (800,000*l.*) to the construction of a fortified camp in Rome, and another in Capua; and 23,600,000 f. (944,000*l.*) to works for the defence of the coasts. To this, which was the Ministerial proposal, the Special Committee of the Chamber wished to add an expenditure of 88,500,000 f. (3,540,000*l.*) for more extensive works on the frontier, in the interior of the country, and on the coasts. Their project, however, was not to be allowed to come under discussion until the Chamber should have disposed of the financial measures lately laid before the House by the Minister Minghetti. The Ministerial proposal, and indeed any proposal tending to secure Italy from foreign invasion, could not fail to be received with favour by a large majority of the Italian Government: the only opposition arose from those who considered the measures under discussion either insufficient to the need or exceeding it; or, again, from those who wished for a more prompt execution of the contemplated works, and consequently of an outlay of the funds voted in a shorter period of years; or, finally, from those who objected to the proposal altogether, as unsuited to the financial and economical conditions of the country. The question was settled, however, by a declaration of Signor Minghetti himself, who engaged that the execution of all the Government schemes connected with the War Department should be kept within the limits of a yearly expenditure of 185,000,000 f. (7,400,000*l.*)—165,000,000 f. (6,600,000*l.*) for ordinary, and 20,000,000 f. (800,000*l.*) for extraordinary expenses. To fulfil this engagement the Government would probably be compelled to make some reduction in the effective force, as well as to postpone at least some of the contemplated works of fortification.

Finance, as usual, proved the one stumbling block to Ministerial tranquillity in Italy. Two months later the Minister was defeated on one of the most important points of his financial scheme. He had in former sittings been able to carry the greater part of his Budget. The debates had been long and obstinate, but in the end he had prevailed. He had persuaded the Chamber to give the Government the heavy tax on house property, which had previously belonged to the Communes for local purposes. He had extended the tobacco monopoly to Sicily, in spite of fierce opposition from the representatives of those rather independent islanders. In one of the divisions the Government had a majority of two votes only. Week after week passed away in prolix debates, and every important section of the scheme had been voted with but one exception. This was the Bill for raising a revenue by

stamping and registering deeds. The opposition was vigorously headed by persons conversant with business, who of course were able to make most forcible objections. On May 21, after four days' debate, in which the Minister had exerted himself to the utmost, the Chamber gave a preliminary approval of the Bill, but only by a majority of 190 to 179. This was generally looked upon as fatal to the scheme. But Signor Minghetti was obstinate. He was persuaded of the financial success of his project if it could only be voted; for under the present law there was large evasion of the duties actually in existence, and individuals were taxed unequally, while the State suffered in its revenue. To deter people from evading the law by declaring all unstamped documents invalid was the only remedy for the evil, and it was a complete one. To the Minister the measure of the hostility to the Bill was the measure of its advantages. He persevered accordingly, and the debate was renewed on a further stage of the Bill. The most important clauses had been voted by small but sufficient majorities; but on the 24th a vote was taken on the scheme as a whole, and it was rejected by a majority of one—the numbers being 166 to 165.

The next day Signor Minghetti announced to the Chamber that he had tendered his resignation to the King. The King, however, did not accept it, and consequently the Ministry remained, with the understanding that it would adapt its course to the opinion of the Chamber. The vote of the 24th was to be respected, and the Government was to present a new financial measure in place of that which had failed of success.

But Minghetti was doomed to more defeats. In consequence of the ill-success of his financial measures, from which he had hoped for an increase to the revenue of 50,000,000 f., but which would now barely yield 30,000,000 f., he declared that no new expenditure should be voted, and therefore decided to withdraw the Bill on the national defence which had already been voted in the Chamber and was now before the Senate. In both Houses he was overruled. The Italian Parliament seemed determined neither to increase the revenue nor to reduce the expenditure. Italian politicians have an unbounded confidence in the elasticity of their revenue. They say that there has been a constant, though gradual, falling off in the deficit, and that without any effort on their part to restore the balance it will eventually altogether disappear, either by reproductive works, which in their opinion will be sure to yield much more than they cost, or by opening new ways of communication and giving a new impulse to the productiveness and to the export trade of the whole country, and especially of those Southern Provinces which are still so backward in all the means and appliances of modern civilisation. With respect to the Bill for the national defences, their idea is that the very existence of the country depends on its ability to take the field even alone, if need be, to ward off a foreign enemy. To put Italy in a thorough

state of defence by land and sea would require an outlay of at least 300,000,000 f.; but for the present only 79,000,000 f. were said to be needed for fortification works of urgent necessity. This sum, accordingly, Signor Minghetti found himself obliged to grant, whether willingly or not, for his Minister for War (Signor Ricotti) insisted upon it, and found Menabrea and Cialdini and many other Generals in the Senate to support him.

After the vote of Whit-Sunday, Signor Sella was heard to exclaim that the defeat of the Bill for annulling unstamped and unregistered acts was "a financial Novara." But sanguine people saw reason to take comfort even from that ominous warning, saying as that disastrous battle, which seemed to have dealt a death-blow to the national cause, marked the date from which success constantly accompanied it, so that vote which, according to Sella, was decisive as to the fate of Italian finance may be found to have closed the period in which things have gone from bad to worse, and to have ushered in the time when they must begin to mend.

March 23, being the twenty-fifth anniversary of King Victor Emmanuel's accession to the throne, was observed as a national holiday. In replying to an address of the Italian Senate, the King said:—"The work of national independence has been achieved because we have combined our own independence with respect for the independence of others, and our claim for rights of the State with respect for religion." To the address of the Deputies he replied:—"The Parliament has given us a great example of liberty, which has remained intact by reason of the harmony prevailing between the Crown and the national representatives." To the Magistracy and the chiefs of the Public Accounts Department:—"The people regard as supreme benefits, respect for law and the protection of their rights." To the Army and Navy:—"I rejoice to see myself among those with whom my youth was passed, and whose hopes and dangers I have shared. I shall always have at heart the prosperity and glory of the Army and Navy, to whose guardianship in time of need the rights of the country are securely confided." To the representatives of the Scientific and Artistic Societies:—"The period upon which we are entering needs help from science and the arts of peace. Public works, manufactures, and commerce will contribute to restore to Italy her ancient grandeur."

Deputations also presented addresses to the King from numerous towns and provinces of the kingdom, in acknowledging which Victor Emmanuel said:—"I feel deeply these spontaneous demonstrations from the people. The unity of Italy is now a pledge for the peace of Europe. A principle equally salutary to civilisation and religion was established when Rome became the capital of Italy. After God we owe all to the merit of the Italian people. Liberty has awakened the glorious traditions of the Italian municipalities, and the exercise of local liberties dependent upon the national unity, is a source of prosperity. We

shall be able to say that we have well employed our life if we leave the country well-ordered, prosperous, and united."

The Dissolution of Parliament, for which the King signed a decree on September 20, was followed a few weeks afterwards by a general election, the result of which was that the Right carried 275 places, the Left 199, while "doubtful" members were reckoned at 34. On the whole the Government had reason to be satisfied. The King, in his speech from the throne, expressed his gratitude to the Italian people for the proofs of affection he had received from them on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his accession. He hoped that the new Legislature would zealously pursue the work of reorganisation commenced by its predecessor. Bills embodying a new Penal Code, a law relating to commercial companies, and a law for guaranteeing public safety in certain provinces, would be laid before Parliament. After speaking in terms of warm interest of the army and navy, the King said the Ministry would submit Bills for the reorganisation of some taxes; and continued:—"Meanwhile, we must only incur expenses of evident urgency, and when authorising them, at the same time provide the means of meeting them. Thus it will become possible to establish a financial equilibrium and lighten the sacrifices nobly and courageously borne by the people." Respecting foreign affairs, the King was happy to say that Italy maintained friendly relations with all foreign Powers. He regarded the friendship of other nations for Italy as the recompense of the firmness and moderation of the Italian people. "Liberty united to order," continued His Majesty, "can solve the most difficult problems, and Italy, by continuing in that path, cannot fail to accomplish her glorious destiny." The King concluded by expressing his constant solicitude for the welfare of the poorer classes of the population, and his gratitude to God for the abundant harvest of the present year. He was frequently interrupted by applause in the course of his speech.

The chief internal trouble of Italy this year consisted in the prevalence of brigandage, to some degree even in the neighbourhood of Rome and other cities in the central parts of the kingdom, but to a much more alarming extent in Southern Italy and Sicily. Signor Minghetti, in a speech to his constituents at Legnago, thus alluded to the evil:—"Permit me, signori, to touch on a very painful subject. There are some provinces in the kingdom in which evils of long standing, of past centuries, are gradually acquiring new power. Crimes of bloodshed and plunder are greatly on the increase. Brigandage in all its forms is being renewed; assassins and thieves are showing an audacity beyond all belief. On the other hand, the timidity of honest persons is becoming such that they have no longer the power of offering resistance. Witnesses cannot be found, and jurymen refuse to act; the magistrates themselves are intimidated. The landowner can no longer visit his estates, and during certain hours men of

business do not dare to leave their houses and go about the streets of the city; everyone trembles for those dear to them. This lamentable consequence has the effect of increasing licence, and of providing brigands with intermediaries—*manutengoli*; thus the effect and the cause react upon each other. Is it possible to allow this state of things to continue? Is it possible for a civilised people to become accustomed to live in the midst of such enormities? The answer of each honest mind must be absolutely 'No!' If you pay attention to the opinion of strangers, even of those most kindly disposed towards us, you will understand how these facts diminish in a great degree that esteem and that credit which in many ways we may fairly be said to merit. But to obtain an end it is requisite to use proportionate means. The existing laws, whether preventive or repressive, as applied to the greater part of the kingdom, are insufficient to the needs of certain times and certain places. It becomes, therefore, necessary that the Government should be armed with greater powers; that the modes of procedure before the courts should be more prompt, and the preventive police have larger means of action. Ours is not an exceptional case. Other Liberal nations have had similar experience and found the cure. England herself was obliged to restore public security in Ireland, in the Ionian Islands, and in Malta by extraordinary provisions; and so we purpose doing. It is our intention to lay before Parliament, directly it opens, a bill which, taking into consideration the frequency of crimes and brigandage, will furnish the means of repression. It will be a severe law, and applicable only in those cases which I have indicated, and its application will be made by Parliament itself, when sitting, and at other times by the Government on its own responsibility. It is not a question here, signori, of black or red spectres, to imitate a phrase too often used in France, and not very appropriately repeated among us. It is a question of striking the sects whence assassins emerge—the *Cumorra*, the *Mafia*, and all such manifestations of barbarism."

The *Cumorra* of Naples was an organised society of ratteners and robbers, connived at under the old Monarchy of the country, which dared not try to abate this worst of disorders within its gates. The present Government of Italy, however, resolved to do its best; and making a *razzia* among the Camorristi in the middle of September, despatched eighty of them into exile.

"The *Mafia* of Sicily was an unseen institution, containing hundreds of thousands of members (says a letter from Naples, given in the *Borsenzeitung* in the month of August), whose chief object is to afford mutual support in their expeditions. The *Mafia* protects its members with the dagger of the assassin. It generally prevents the prosecution and capture of criminals by placing obstacles in the way of the authorities; and when one of its members is captured notwithstanding its efforts, it prevents his condemnation by its influence on the witnesses and jurors,

who fear the dagger of the Maffia. The cases in which the jurors have sufficient courage to pronounce a verdict of guilty against a brigand are exceedingly rare, and the consequence is that most of the brigands who are brought before a court of justice are acquitted. When this is not the case the terrified population usually learn a few days after that some of the jurors have been attacked by assassins and either strangled or severely wounded. . . . Even in Palermo itself the influence exercised by the Maffia is enormous, and it not unfrequently happens that a stranger is accosted in the streets by a brigand and compelled, under threats of assassination, to pay a considerable sum by way of ransom. He can, it is true, give his assailant into custody to the nearest carabinieri; but he will not do so if he is wise, for he will in that case probably be murdered within the next forty-eight hours. The Government has attempted to put down this terrible scourge by increasing the military force in the island, but in vain. The only effectual means of crushing brigandage would be to suspend the system of trial by jury, and proclaim the island in a state of siege. Political considerations have hitherto prevented the Government from taking this course. The Minghetti Ministry is not favourably looked upon by a great part of the population, and being conscious of the distrust it inspires, it feared to take a decisive step which might have led to dangerous misconstructions. But under present circumstances the proclamation of a state of siege is an absolute necessity. The Government, however, cannot do this without the sanction of the Chamber, as it is by no means sure of obtaining a majority; and it is, therefore, almost certain that the present lamentable state of things in Sicily will continue a few months longer, when it will be more difficult to apply a remedy than it is now. In order to do something meanwhile for the security of the people, the Government has asked the prefects of Sicily whether they consider military reinforcements necessary. To this the Prefect of Palermo has replied that he will not be able to put down the Maffia with the whole of the Italian army so long as the brigands can claim constitutional rights."

A correspondent of the *Times*, writing at the end of December, says :—

"On the 28th inst. fifty more *Camorristi* were arrested and sent off to the islands on the Sicilian coast, and since then there have been no individual arrests. The Government seems resolved on completing the work of expurgation, notwithstanding the oratorical flourishes of the Opposition about the liberty of the subject, and the advantage of gentle and humane punishments. One would imagine that the case under discussion was the improvement of the discipline of a ladies' school, instead of the suppression and punishment of disorder, violence, and murder, which in some provinces have become chronic. Even nearer home than Sicily, according to the *Pungolo*, a band of armed men, thirteen in number, were traversing the country not far from Venafrò. They

had been seen near Rocca-Vecchia, and public attention was called to the fact some time since. Many acts of violence had been committed by them ; one poor fellow had been robbed of 1,000 lire, and others cruelly beaten. Now, these places are in Terra di Lavoro, the richest province in Southern Italy, and if such acts are possible in a district so favoured, what may not happen in remote country places ? Of course it will be said that these men are not brigands ; but what are the characteristics which distinguish them from brigands ? The reports from Sicily are mingled details of crimes and arrests, and protests against the violation of the liberty of the subject. We read of two persons firing at and wounding a certain Salomone Gesualdo, and of the finding of the body of a man at Montelone who had been killed by a gun-shot. Then comes the arrest of fellows accused of sending menacing letters demanding money ; of others who had committed frightful murders some weeks or months ago ; and, to conclude, we read in the extreme journals indignant protests against the violation of the liberty of the subject, and especially against the proposed Law of Public Security, ‘worthy of the Middle Ages, or rather the most cruel despotism.’”

SPAIN.

The close of 1873 left Spain in the throes of a political crisis. When the new year opened, the Dictator Castelar was preparing to meet a factious Cortes, which had been adjourned since September 21, and which the intrigues of its President Salmeron had helped to dispose against him. At the last moment, indeed, conferences were held between the rival politicians in the view of reconciling their differences. But it was too late. Public opinion was becoming more and more disorganised. The zealots of Cantonalism and Communism, who had crowded into the Cortes, when at the last elections all the propertied classes had abstained from voting, were determined to set up Senor Pi y Margall, or some more extravagant politician. The military leaders who inclined to the old order of things were believed to be endeavouring to bring about a Monarchical Restoration in the person of Queen Isabella's son, Prince Alfonso. The Madrid mob, a more fiercely democratic mob even than that of the Parisian faubourgs, was raging against the Dictatorship, the siege of Cartagena, the restoration of the army, and, generally, against the measures taken for the maintenance of order in Spain. It was under these circumstances that on January 2 Senor Castelar met the Cortes. He formally surrendered into their hands the Dictatorship he had received from them, vindicating its use and demanding its renewal in a Message which, frankly revealing the political exigencies of Spain, concluded with the declaration—“We must close for ever the æra of popular risings and military *pronunciamentos*.” Even

while he pronounced these words, a military *pronunciamento* was impending.

A long debate followed on the delivery of Señor Castelar's Message. At five o'clock on the morning of January 3 the motion for approval of his exercise of power during the late recess of the Legislative body was negatived by 120 votes against 100. The defeat was decisive: Castelar at once presented the resignation of himself and his Cabinet. As soon as this event was known out of doors, General Pavia, the Captain-General of Madrid, who had assembled his troops in full force round the Palace of the Cortes, sent in an officer with a letter to Señor Salmeron, who was sitting as President of the Assembly, calling upon him to dissolve it within five minutes. Hereupon ensued a scene of wild uproar and confusion. Castelar disclaimed all complicity with the proceedings of Pavia, and protested he would, as still holding the actual power, dismiss and degrade that officer for the insolent and unauthorised step he had taken. Then Salmeron declared that all party differences between himself and Castelar should be forgotten in the common danger, and proposed that Castelar should be again invested with full dictatorial powers. The proposal was voted at once by the fickle Cortes. But Castelar refused the honour thrust upon him, declaring that it was too late, and that there was no more helpless man in Spain than himself. And now the five minutes given by General Pavia were more than over, and soldiers appeared at the door. A little pushing and scuffling ensued; a few shots were fired in the air; and at about seven o'clock the deputies returned quietly to their homes. No sooner had he cleared the Hall of Congress of its occupants, than General Pavia locked the doors, and issued invitations to all the Generals who had taken part in the Revolution of 1868, and to the leading men of all political parties, Carlists and Intransigentes excepted, to meet him in the building itself. They speedily came—Conservatives, Progressists, Monarchists, Democrats. Among them might be seen politicians who had passed across the busy scene and vanished into temporary obscurity—Martos, Topete, Sagasta, Garcia Ruiz, Serrano, and Concha. General Pavia spoke.

He said that the act he had just accomplished was a very grave one, which only extraordinary circumstances could justify. He had done it entirely of his own accord, without any personal or political end. Had the Government presided over by Señor Castelar not been defeated, he should not have moved, but knowing that its defeat involved the accession of a Ministry who would quickly have once more disorganised and dissolved the army, and carried the country to social dissolution, he had carried out a determination he had taken for that event, without consulting anybody. What he had done he had done from pure patriotism and in the interests of the country, which assuredly would have been lost beyond all hope if the advancing tide of demagogism were not stemmed by *somebody*. As to the army, which had so promptly

seconded him, he could say that it entirely shared his motives, and he wished it to be clearly understood that he should refuse to permit any recompense or recognition of services to be given to either officers or soldiers for the part they had taken in the events of the day. For himself, he wore the uniform, not of a party, but of the nation, and the mission he thought the nation had conferred upon him being accomplished, he should prove his disinterestedness by declining to take part in any Government that might be formed. He should return to his post as Captain-General of Madrid, and hold that post against all comers until every danger to the public peace had passed over. They, the assembled statesmen, as heads of parties, were there to form a Government and to decide what was best to be done. If he had any political thought at all, it was that the new Ministry should be one of coalition, formed of all the parties there represented.

Then came the election of the new Ministers. To Marshal Serrano was entrusted the chief direction of affairs, as Head of the Executive Power of the Republic. Under him, representing different parties in the State, the Cabinet was composed as thus:—

Señor Sagasta, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Señor Zabala, Minister of War.

Señor Figuerola, Minister of Justice.

Señor Becerra, Minister of Agriculture.

Señor Echegaray, Minister of Finance.

Señor Garcia Ruiz, Minister of the Interior.

Señor Topete, Minister of Marine.

Five days afterwards a Ministerial manifesto was addressed to the nation, explaining the events which had just occurred. The demoralisation of the Cortes and its factious dismissal of the virtuous Castelar from the place of power, it was declared, rendered the step necessary. The parties now placed in power were the same with those who made the Revolution of 1868 and the Constitution of 1869. They neither condemned nor destroyed their previous work; the voluntary abdication of the Monarch and the proclamation of the Republic had merely erased one of its clauses. "The Cardinal Law," the manifesto continued, in the grandiloquent Spanish style of metaphor, "being thus modified in form by events of Providence, we ought not to consent to any change in its essence by means of accidental circumstances; but, after the fashion of the sculptor, we believe the hour has come to cast it in imperishable bronze, by the aid of the strong mould and the hard chisel of the Dictatorship. Immediately that we have terminated this grand enterprise, the Constitution of 1869 will return to give to the people all the rights embodied in it; the country and its institutions will have been saved, and with due tranquillity and repose, exempt from the coercions and the passions which are to-day fermented by the Civil War, the citizens may go to the urns and choose their representatives who shall approve or dis-

approve our act, and, legislating in ordinary Cortes, shall design the form and the manner in which the Supreme Magistrate of the nation shall be elected, define his attributes, and choose the first to occupy that exalted post."

Then followed a decree dissolving the Cortes. It ran thus:—"Public opinion, availing itself of the providential arm of the Army, has dissolved the late Constituent Cortes. The country has lent to this act its most unanimous assent. The Executive Power of the Republic accept all its responsibility, and in consequence decree as follows:—

"Art. 1. The Constituent Cortes of 1873 are declared dissolved.

"Art. 2. The Government of the Republic will convoke ordinary Cortes as soon as the necessities of public order being satisfied universal suffrage can operate (*funcionar*) freely."

During this revolution Madrid remained tranquil; but in Saragossa, Barcelona, and Valentia, volunteers were arrayed by the Communal authorities against the troops of Government, and barricades were raised. The struggle, however, was of short duration.

And within ten days after the inauguration of the new Government a striking military success came to give it credit; although, indeed, to the strenuous preparations of Castelar that success was really due. Cartagena surrendered to General Lopez Dominguez. The Intransigentes had held their stronghold with obstinate determination, but on January 11 the Fort Atalaya was treacherously surrendered. The rebel Junta, on capitulating, proposed, with singular effrontery, that as their "heroic resistance had been the admiration of the whole world," the garrison should march out with flying colours, and no punishment be inflicted on any supporter of the rebellion. With complaisance not less amazing, General Lopez Dominguez admitted the fact of the heroic resistance, and, though not according the triumphant exit, granted the amnesty demanded, with exception only of the members of the Communal Junta. The contest was then virtually decided. General Dominguez made his formal entry on the 13th. The Intransigente leaders Contreiras and Galvez, with the members of the Junta and 2,000 convicts, managed to escape on board the *Numancia* frigate, and were landed at Mess-el-Kebir in Algeria, where they became prisoners of the French authorities.

Thus the Communal insurrection of the South was quelled. In the North the Carlist war blazed on, and became more formidable. Early in January the head-quarters of General Moriones were at Laredo, and those of Don Carlos at Somorrostro. Each army was watching the important fortress of Bilbao, the capital of the Basque Provinces—the Carlists in the hope of capturing it, the Government troops with the intention of relieving it, if they could find a favourable opportunity for breaking through the lines of the besiegers. The river Somorrostro flows to the west of

Bilbao. Above the bridge of Somorrostro are the heights of San Lorenzo and San Puente, where the Carlists were intrenched. In the middle of February, General Moriones advanced to Somorrostro. But here his further progress was delayed by the stormy weather, which prevented the naval squadron at the mouth of the river from co-operating with him. On the 21st Don Carlos, leaving Durango, took up his quarters at Baracaldo, on the other side of Bilbao, at a short distance from the Republican vessels, and began shelling the city. On the 23rd Moriones pushed forward against the enemy. On that day and the two succeeding he endeavoured to force their lines; but the Carlists were intrenched on an elevated plateau bristling with batteries, and thrice repulsed the assailants. The loss sustained by the Republicans in dead, wounded, and prisoners was said to amount to no less than 1,800 men. The luckless Moriones sent for reinforcements, and begged leave to resign his command. His requests were promptly complied with. Marshal Serrano himself, the "Chief of the Executive Power" and President of the Ministry, leaving General Zabala to act for him in the latter department, quitted Madrid early in March, and by the middle of the month had raised the Republican force in the North to the number of 30,000 men. Admiral Topete was despatched to Santander to direct the operations of the navy.

Bilbao still held out. On March 25 Serrano crossed the Somorrostro river and attacked the Carlist position. The Carlist troops were calculated at 20,000. Serrano succeeded in capturing the first line of the enemy's defences, and continued the attack on the morrow. The position he aimed at was San Pedro de Abanto, by forcing which he would isolate the Carlist right in the direction of the coast, and enable the Government fleet to co-operate with his own forces. But he was unable to accomplish the operation. The Carlists lost no important ground that day; and on the 27th, after some hours of still more severe fighting, the Republican troops desisted from the effort to break the enemy's ranks, and the Carlists remained in possession of the lines of Somorrostro. The two Republican generals next in command to Serrano, Primo de Rivera and Loma, were wounded.

A pause occurred in active military operations for a month. Rumours of a convention with the Carlists were propagated and denied. The Commander-in-Chief, however, was directing all his energies to the accumulation of a force strong enough to turn the enemy's position while it should be attacked or threatened in front. He selected as his coadjutor in the plan Marshal Concha, a veteran of much experience in the old civil wars after the death of Ferdinand, when his services against the Carlists obtained for him high promotion.

On April 28 Serrano began again to advance against San Pedro de Abanto, with a force of about 30,000 men, Concha, with the Third Army Corps, 20,000 strong, moving at the same

time towards Balmaseda, on the flank and rear of the Carlists. This was the real attack; the advance of Serrano being a feint to draw off the attention of the enemy. It proved entirely successful. After taking Santullon and Ferreira, Concha occupied a commanding position on the heights of Corbera, steadily driving the Carlists before him in a south-easterly direction. Marshal Serrano advanced to Portugalete, which he entered on May 1. The Republicans on both sides were now in a position to enter Bilbao itself, which had so long been wanting their relief. Serrano gracefully resigned to Concha the honours of the first entry; and that veteran leader, with the Third Army Corps, was received into the city on May 2, Serrano following him the next day. Great rejoicings took place at Madrid, which illuminated in honour of the victory. Bilbao, whose provisions were nearly exhausted, was revictualled.

While Concha remained to quarter his troops in the relieved capital of Biscay, Serrano lost no time in returning to Madrid. Political affairs there had been troubled during his absence. The coalition Cabinet had with difficulty been prevented from breaking up. Admiral Topete had hurried to the capital in the midst of the operations against Somorrostro, in order to postpone the imminent rupture. General Zabala, the Minister of War, had been faithful to his task of providing supplies and reinforcements to the army. But his colleagues were devoured by mutual jealousies and mistrusts. Serrano found it necessary to remodel the Cabinet. He would willingly have preserved the party truce which was represented by it in its original form; but this being impossible, he had recourse to the Conservative section, keeping, however, Sagasta to conciliate the Progressists, but giving him the home instead of the foreign department of affairs.

Some military critics said that if Marshal Concha had immediately followed up the relief of Bilbao by pursuing the disheartened Carlists to their important fastness at Durango, the cause of Carlos Settimo would have at that moment been lost. Durango was little more than five leagues distant; but then the country was difficult and dangerous, and it was the prospect of having to keep up communications and secure supplies, which probably deterred Concha from so venturesome a course. His prolonged delay of active operations, till far in June, disappointed the friends of Government. The answer that his plans were deep, and that he was collecting an overwhelming force, which would crush the enemy effectually, was hardly satisfactory, while the fairest season for summer activity was passing away. It became evident, however, after a time, that his design was to attack the Carlists at Estella, in Navarre, which was their principal stronghold, where their forces were as numerous as those of the Republicans, where their artillery was powerful, and their defences even more formidable than those at Somorrostro. The capture of Estella, even more than that of Durango, might be supposed to decide definitively the overthrow of the Carlist

cause. Concha left Bilbao on May 11. His headquarters at the end of that month were at Miranda. Thence, taking the Orduña road, he proceeded to Vittoria. On the 25th he commenced what he intended to be his decisive movement, pushing forward his columns from Larraga to Oteiza. On the following day he occupied all the points from which his attack was to be made, and on the 27th opened fire along the entire front of his position. Under cover of the fire the troops, led by General Echague, advanced. But they advanced to destruction. The Carlists reserved their reply till their enemy was within 200 yards of them. Then the columns of attack were literally mowed down by the storm of shot. Brigade succeeded brigade till evening was advanced; then, for the first time, the Republican ranks gave sign of wavering. The Carlists, with a tremendous cheer, fixed their bayonets, leapt over their parapets of defence, and bore down upon them. This happened on the right of the Republican army. On the left, in front of the village of Arbazuza, Concha himself directed the attack. Here, too, the Carlists held their positions, and resolutely repelled every effort of the assailants. As his strongest column wavered, and broke to the rear, the Marshal, about seven o'clock in the evening, spurred forward to rally his men, and received a bullet in his groin. He was carried to Arbazuza, and there died half-an-hour after. His last words were:—"I die in the van of the army." Some believed that he had voluntarily sought his end, seeing the hopeless condition of the fight. General Echague, on whom the command devolved, drew off his forces without loss of time, and evacuated all the positions previously occupied; setting fire to the villages. In killed, wounded, and prisoners the Republicans lost between 4,000 and 5,000 men at this battle of Estella, or Peña Muro. It was said that their defeat was mainly occasioned by the treacherous failure of a convoy on which the troops had depended. As the Republicans retreated, all the bells of the places occupied by the Carlists pealed in triumph. Their success was, indeed, a great one; and General Dorregaray, who was their chief commander on the occasion, deserved the honour which his titular Sovereign bestowed upon him.

But in the intoxication of victory and the bitterness of partisanship, Dorregaray made the Carlist cause conspicuous for cruelties, such as but rarely disgrace the annals of modern warfare. He caused his Republican prisoners to be decimated, and in a circular which he published some days after the battle, justified the act, and declared that it was caused by previous outrages on the part of the Republican army, and that it was his determination to give no quarter for the future. One act of wanton ferocity was specially memorable for its future consequences. A German officer, Captain Schmidt by name, who had accompanied the troops of Government in the character of a newspaper correspondent, was shot among the other victims. It was given out that he had consented to declare himself a Catholic, in the hope

held out to him that by so doing he would preserve his life; but this allegation was afterwards positively denied.

General Zabala, the War Minister, was sent from Madrid to take the command left vacant by the death of Concha, taking with him Moriones as chief of his Staff. The body of Marshal Concha was brought to the capital, and interred with splendid funeral honours.

The formidable indignation of Bismarck was not long in making itself felt against the cause which had identified itself with the murder of a German officer, and with other atrocities, disgraceful in the annals of war; and whose success, moreover, would have given an advantage to the Ultramontane interests throughout Europe, which it was the leading object of his policy to avert. Two German gunboats, the "Albatross" and the "Nautilus," were despatched to the Bay of Biscay to prevent supplies from getting to the Carlists by sea, either from the French or English sympathisers—for even in England there was a fraction of society which wished well to the cause of Don Carlos for the sake of all it represented, while across the border, the French Legitimists, whether with or without secret Government connivance, did their best to give aid, encouragement and shelter, to the partisans of the Pretender. But Bismarck took a yet more decided step. Up to this time no European Government had formally recognised the provisional rule of Marshal Serrano. On July 21 and July 26, Prince Hohenlohe, the German Ambassador in Paris, had two interviews with the French Foreign Minister, the Duc Decazes, in which he urged upon him the resolution of his Government, not to allow the provinces occupied by the Carlists to remain the scene of a barbarous enterprise, contrary to the laws of humanity. The French Government, he hoped, would take the necessary measures to show the Carlists that no sympathy was to be expected from it.

Great precautions were taken by the German representative in this "officious" communication to avoid whatever could have an imperious or aggressive character. He declared, at the outset, the firm determination of his Government not to impair the good relations subsisting between the two nations. He recalled the unfortunate susceptibility of France in 1870, but only for the purpose of adding that Germany was resolved not to imitate it. Germany insisted on nothing, but confined herself to expressing a wish, and gave the communication a purely "officious" character, by declaring that only in the event of the inability or refusal of the French Government would she proceed diplomatically. The day after this interview, the French Minister, who had given Prince Hohenlohe every explanation which he thought calculated to satisfy the German Government, assured him that, as in the first instance, so after twenty-four hours' reflection, he did not find in the communication he had made anything which appeared to him to bear the character of an insult or a threat.

Then followed the formal recognition of the *de facto* Government at Madrid by the Emperor of Germany. The example was promptly imitated at Paris and at London, and soon afterwards at Vienna. Russia only, of the great Powers, held back. The Czar even wrote a letter to Don Carlos, couched in friendly terms; but this was not held to count for much, and the hesitation in recognising Serrano's rule, was probably more from a dislike of committing Russia to anti-Legitimist principles in the abstract, than from any real spirit of partisanship with the claimant's cause.

The Carlists now overran the North-Eastern Provinces, the fortresses only holding out against them. They threatened Bilbao and Portugalete and cannonaded Puyceida, from which, however, they were repulsed. Then that portion of their forces which occupied Aragon and Valencia, under Don Alfonso, the brother of the Pretender, boldly struck westwards, and advanced in the direction of Madrid, making straight for the city of Cuenca, in Castille. Cuenca resisted with spirit, but after a terrible bombardment fell into the hands of the Carlists on July 15. The place was plundered; fire was set to the principal buildings. The Bishop interceded with Donna Blanca, the martial wife of Don Alfonso, for the volunteers who had taken refuge in his palace. "Congratulate yourself that your fate is not theirs!" was the reply of the Carlist Amazon. The capture of Cuenca was a demonstration of blood and fire, after the pattern admired by the Carlists; but it proved of no strategical importance, as the Republican troops advancing in force, the victors had speedily to abandon their prize. Not only that, but Brigadier Lopez Pinto overtook them at Salvacannete on the 20th, and rescued the whole Republican division taken prisoners at Cuenca, besides capturing a considerable number of Carlists, men and officers. Terruel was successfully defended by the Government troops against Lizarraga. In Catalonia, the bands of Saballs traversed the country, committing many atrocities. In Navarre, the capture of La Guardia by the Carlists under Dorregaray, was more than avenged by a defeat which Moriones inflicted upon them at Oteiza on August 11. Still the balance of success on the whole, at this period, inclined to the Pretender's cause. By the beginning of September his troops had entered several towns in different parts of Spain, though they had been for the most part unable to retain their acquisitions; and they had obtained possession, through the treachery of the garrison or the inhabitants, of the important fortress of Seo d'Urgel, with a considerable number of heavy guns and a quantity of stores. They were threatening Irun and Fontarabia, in the immediate neighbourhood of the French frontier, and had once more blockaded Bilbao. Their insufficient provision of artillery had prevented them from taking by a regular siege any fortified town which was properly defended. They had been repelled in several attacks on Puyceida, but the movements of the national generals had hitherto

were timid and ineffective, probably because they were unable to trust their undisciplined levies.

General Loma had received a check, and Marshal Zabala had gone to Madrid, where his arrival had been followed by certain changes in the Ministry. The Carlist army, which was now vaguely estimated at the number of 60,000 or 70,000 men, consisted entirely of volunteers, though in some districts considerable pressure may have been used. The inhabitants of the Basque provinces and of Aragon belong to the most warlike part of the Spanish population; and a considerable part of the Carlist troops were really zealous in the questionable cause for which they were fighting. The Government of Madrid, on the other hand, was compelled to rely on the system of conscription, which is probably more unpopular in Spain than in any other part of Europe.

Immediately upon the visit of Marshal Zabala to Madrid, it was announced, to general surprise, that he had renounced his command. There was little doubt that this step was connected with a movement which was gaining ground among the army and most of the Monarchical Liberals, to put an end to the provisional Government and proclaim as King the young son of Queen Isabella, Alfonso, Prince of the Asturias. Serrano himself was believed to be in favour of this policy. The retirement of Zabala and two other members from the Ministry tended to retard its progress. One of the experienced party leaders of the nation, Señor Sagasta, was found resuming office as President of the Cabinet.

We must pass over briefly most of the course of this monotonous and demoralising war during the rest of the year. The tide of success again turned against the Carlists. Puycerda, threatened by their forces, was relieved by General Lopez Dominguez and his troops, after five encounters. The insurgents received a yet more signal defeat near Pampeluna on September 25, when they attacked the position of General Morones, who had advanced to the relief of that city.

In November, the chief seat of the contest was on the banks of the Bidassoa. Irun was invested by the Carlist troops; and on the 4th a bombardment of that place was commenced under the auspices of the Prince himself. After they had fired for four days, it was known that Loma, the Republican general, had come into Irun, up the river, had reconnoitred the position, made a speech to the garrison, and promised to be back again soon. Two days later he returned, advancing from San Sebastian, and, after some resistance, occupied the line from Oyarzun to San Marcial, to the south of Irun; then constructing intrenchments on Mount San Marcos, he opened fire on the Carlist positions. General Laserna, the Republican general, advancing by a different road, gave effectual assistance to his comrade. On the 11th there was great cannonading all along the line. The fire of the Carlists against Irun had been reduced to almost nothing; on the previous day they had only fired sixty-three shots between sunrise and sunset. But the

Republicans had now come upon the scene in force. The tables were turned; the bombardiers were the bombarded, and the Republicans fired at least four shots for each one of their adversaries. The fusillade on the hills about Irun and Fontarabia was incessant. This was the prelude to a more serious engagement. The Pretender had about 8,000 men. General Loma separated 5,000 of these, under Cevallos, from the rest, attacked them vigorously, and drove them from their positions. A panic seems to have seized them at the sudden approach of the Republicans in force. They had sent away a part of their siege artillery at the very news that the enemy was advancing; and after the first defeat they hurried on in terror at the thought that the pursuers were upon them. The fugitives were with difficulty prevented from taking refuge on French territory. On the day after he had gained this signal advantage, General Loma attacked the remainder of the Carlists, drove them from their trenches, and completely raised the siege. On the morrow he occupied the main Carlist position at San Marcial, which had been abandoned, and advanced along the river to Enderlaza. The Carlists retired in utter confusion to Vera. Then came an instance of what had long been one of the puzzles of the war. It seemed as though the Spanish Republicans dreaded one thing more than a defeat; and that was a decisive victory. No attempt was made on the part of Generals Loma and Laserna to follow up the success. A well-combined attack of the national troops upon Vera, could not have failed to put the discomfited and demoralised Carlist forces, their artillery and shell manufactory, and, possibly, the Pretender himself, at their discretion. But instead of this, greatly to the public surprise and disappointment, a retrograde movement was decided on. General Loma and his troops returned to San Sebastian, or were embarked for Santander, to sail when the weather should permit. Their retreat was in obedience to a telegraphic message from Madrid. The belief gained ground that Marshal Serrano had his own reasons for not wishing to bring the war to a speedy close; either influenced by jealousy lest any successful general should take the lead of him in national popularity, or fearful lest the return of peace might give men leisure and inclination to turn their minds to party politics, and endanger the position which he only held by virtue of the present distracted condition of the country.

Twelve days after the retirement of the Carlists from Irun, they had actually re-invested that place; and the victorious army of Loma and Laserna was blockaded at San Sebastian. Pampe-luna, too, which the march of General Moriones in October had only momentarily relieved, was again surrounded by the rebel forces.

Then it was announced that the President of the Republic, Marshal Serrano himself, was about to assume the command of the "Army of the North," and to march primarily to the relief of Pampeluna. Don Carlos set a bold front against the new threat,

recalled his General, Dorregaray, who had lately quitted the active service of the army under some disfavour, placed him in command of the "Army of Navarre," and, himself, took up his headquarters at Tolosa, to direct the operations of the "Army of Guipuzcoa."

On quitting Madrid, Marshal Serrano had said, "I trust that in these moments, while the army is about to make a supreme effort to terminate the war, all the Liberal parties, whose patriotism I cannot doubt, will keep the peace among themselves and give a truce to their struggles. In this way they can best facilitate my action and that of the Government in the enterprise I am about to direct, and which interests all equally alike. Let us united conquer the common enemy, and then address ourselves to the no less important task of creating a Parliament of high qualifications which shall, by wise and well thought out laws, terminate the work by crowning the aspirations of every good Spaniard! This is my only desire, and the single glory I seek to obtain for my own rest and for the pride and example of my children!"

Grand words, destined to staking non-fulfilment. Shortly after Serrano set forth, events at the capital took a rapid and startling turn. The Alfonsists, or advocates of the Prince of Asturias, consisting of a large majority of the middle and upper classes of society, had been working steadily towards their end. On the Prince's seventeenth birthday, November 28, addresses had been presented to him at Sandhurst in England, where he was pursuing his military studies as a cadet, from "the Grandees and persons of title in Spain," from "Conservative Alfonsist Club of Madrid," and from the "Liberal Alfonsist Club of Madrid." To these addresses the Prince had returned an answer; of which the following are some of the passages:—

"All who have written to me show themselves equally convinced that only by the re-establishment of the Constitutional Monarchy can the oppression, the uncertainty, the cruel disturbances experienced by Spain be put an end to. I am told that this is recognised by the majority of our compatriots, and that, before long, those who are in good faith will be with me, whatever may have been their political antecedents, understanding that they have to fear no exclusion from a new and unprejudiced Monarch, or from a system which is imposed to-day precisely because it represents union and peace.

"I know not when or how, nor if this hope is to be realised. I can only say that I will omit nothing to make myself worthy of the difficult mission of re-establishing in our noble country legal order and political liberty at the same time as concord, if God in His high designs confides it to me.

"In virtue of the spontaneous and solemn abdication of my august mother, whose generosity is only equalled by her misfortune, I am the sole representative of Monarchical right in Spain. This right rests upon the legislation of ages, confirmed by all the precedents of history, and it is indissolubly united to the repre-

sentative institutions which never ceased to act legally during the thirty-five years which passed from the beginning of my mother's reign until I, being still a child, trod with all my family, a foreign soil.

"The nation being now orphaned of all public rights, and indefinitely deprived of her liberties, it is natural that she should turn her eyes to her accustomed Constitutional rights and to those free institutions which neither prevented her from defending her independence in 1812 nor from concluding in 1840 another obstinate civil war. She owed to them also many years of constant progress, of prosperity, of credit, and even of some glory; years which it is not easy to blot out from the memory, when there are still so many who have known them.

"Let no one expect me to decide anything hastily or arbitrarily. Without Cortes, Spanish Princes never transacted serious business in the ancient time of the Monarchy, and this most just rule of conduct will not be forgotten by me in the present state of things, and when all Spaniards are already used to Parliamentary proceedings. When cases shall arise, it will be easy for a true-hearted Prince and a free people to understand each other, and to agree upon all the questions which may have to be decided.

"Nothing do I desire so much as that our country should be truly free. To this the hard lessons of these times must powerfully contribute, a lesson which, if it can be lost upon no one, can be so least of all upon the honest and laborious men of the people, who have been victims to perfidious sophistries or to absurd delusions. All that we are witnessing shows us that the greatest and most prosperous nations—where order, liberty, and justice are best united—are those which have the greatest respect for their own history.

"For my part, I am indebted to my misfortune for being in contact with the men and things of modern Europe, and if Spain does not obtain a position in it worthy of her history, and at the time independent and deserving of sympathy, it shall not be my fault, whether now or in the future. Be my fate what it may, I shall not cease to be a true Spaniard, nor, like all my ancestors, a true Catholic, nor, as a man of my time, truly Liberal.

"Yours, &c.,

"ALFONSO DE BORBON."

On the last day of the year it was announced that General Martinez Campos, proclaiming Prince Alfonso as King, had entered Valencia with two brigades. For some days rumours of the approaching change had been in circulation at Paris, where the ex-Queen Isabella and her son were residing. It appears that some time before (we follow the account of the *Times* Paris Correspondent) Marshal Serrano was informed by General Primo di Rivera that he proposed to have the Prince proclaimed, and that he saw no other solution to the existing condition of Spain. In vain did the Marshal offer him the most elevated positions in

Spain, and even the Captain-Generalship of Cuba. Primo di Rivera persisted in his declarations, leaving Serrano free to deprive him of his command. But Serrano had not then the power necessary to supersede the Captain-General of Madrid, of whose intimate relations with the Alfonsist party he was aware. He was confident, too, that Primo di Rivera knew that he alone disposed of the armed force. It was under these circumstances that Serrano repaired to the Army of the North. There, too, he encountered the same language. He met only Generals disposed to proclaim Don Alfonso, and not to fight in order to promote his own success. On this becoming known, it dissipated the apprehensions created at first by the despatch simply announcing the rising of the three battalions of Murviedro, under Martinez Campos.

Then more decisive tidings followed. Towards one o'clock on the afternoon of the 31st, the news reached the Hotel Basilewsky, Avenue Roi de Rome, where Queen Isabella and her son had been residing, that the Armies of the North and Centre had made common cause with Martinez Campos' battalions; that the Madrid garrison, informed beforehand when the movement was to occur, had proclaimed the Prince of the Asturias King of Spain under the title of Alfonso XII.; and that a Ministry, taking the title of "the Regency Ministry," had been constituted. It had been carefully prepared, and would constitute a real alliance Ministry against all sections of the Conservative party. Canovas del Castillo, its chief, and the leader of the Alfonsist party, was formerly a Minister under O'Donnell. An Academician it was who directed the Prince's political education and inspired his Manifesto; namely, the Marquis di Molins, Minister of Marine and Spanish Ambassador to London in 1868, and now President of the Spanish Academy. Salaverria, who was five years Finance Minister under O'Donnell, had the rare glory—very rare ever since—of seeing the Three per Cents. reach 56. Ayala, nominated Minister of the Colonies, who was Minister when Serrano was proclaimed Regent, was the author of the Cadiz Manifesto of 1868. The Marquis Orovio, the new Minister of Public Works, was in office under Narvaez. Jovellar, named Minister of War, was the man who destroyed the Carlist bands in Valencia and Aragon, and was now Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the Centre. He was one of the few skilful Generals in Spain, and, a still more uncommon circumstance, a General who had never made *pronunciamentos*. Rovero Robledo was Minister under Narvaez, and Alessandro Castro, who was not at Madrid at this moment, but was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs in the new Cabinet, was formerly Ambassador at Rome. His presence in the Ministry is unquestionably a significant fact, and gives the vigilant observer indications which explain in many respects the success of the Alfonsist movement and the encouragement it has received. Alessandro Castro is a Liberal, and the Vatican would be wrong to see in him an ally or a friend. Such is the composition of the Government, or rather of the Regency Ministry, of which the

young "King" was informed, and which he hastened to approve. While Conservative, it is, above all, Liberal, and anti-Ultramontane.

At 2:30 the Marquis di Vega di Armijo, the Spanish Ambassador at Paris, received a telegram apprising him of the new state of things, and directing him to give information of it to the French Government. From the moment the news was official, the Hotel Basilewsky was besieged by visitors. Among the first arrivals was Queen Christina, who remained there all day. The Duchesse de Montpensier hastened to present herself and to wish her nephew much happiness amid the arduous task devolving upon him. The Duc de Montpensier, in a telegram from Naples, addressed his New Year's wishes to the Prince of the Asturias. Among the visitors were remarked the Countess of Aquila; and the name of the Comte de Paris figures on the register of persons who called but did not ask to be received. At three o'clock an address arrived at the Hotel Basilewsky from the Army of the North in the following terms:—

"ADDRESS OF THE ARMY OF THE NORTH TO THE MINISTER
PRESIDENT.

"We congratulate your Excellency with the greatest warmth. The Army of the North, in seeing King Alfonso, the representative of the legitimate Monarchy, on the Throne, hopes the Royal flag will not henceforth be the ensign of a party, but that under which all who love order and liberty range themselves."

At this critical point our history of Spain for the year must conclude. The curtain just lifted, the new Royal drama has yet to begin.

PORTUGAL.

THE peaceful little kingdom occupying the west of the Peninsula continued unaffected by the troubles which distracted its unhappy neighbour. The summer elections for a new Chamber of Deputies resulted in the return of seventy-eight members for the Government party, and fourteen only for the Opposition. Not a single seat was gained either by Republicans or Legitimists. On July 24 great rejoicings were held at Lisbon to celebrate the anniversary of the establishment of the Constitutional Monarchy and the cessation of absolute Government in Portugal. Another holiday, which was held on December 1, when the *Te Deum* was sung and the city gaily illuminated, and the King was warmly cheered on his appearance at the theatre, had full justification in the enthusiasm with which it was hailed by the patriotic Portuguese, for the event it commemorated was the liberation of Portugal from Spanish dominion in olden times. No wonder that the Portuguese journals, discussing in the autumn a pretended scheme of Prince

Bismarck's to purchase an alliance with Spain by bringing about an Iberian Union, declared that the idea was not for a moment to be entertained, even if it were proposed that the method of its realisation should be the election of the King of Portugal to the Spanish throne.

CHAPTER V.

RUSSIA —Marriage of the Princess Marie Alexandrovna to the Duke of Edinburgh—Imperial Ukase on Universal Conscription for the Army—Brussels Conference—Siberian exiles.

SWEDEN —Proposed Army measure

DENMARK —Change of Ministry—King's visit to Iceland—King's speech—Germany and Denmark

BELGIUM —Elections to Senate and Chamber—International Society Congress at Brussels

NETHERLANDS —Twenty-fifth anniversary of King's Accession—Change of Ministry—War in Atchin

SWITZERLAND —New Federal Constitution adopted—Congresses at Geneva and Berne—Church matters—Old Catholics at Berne—Father Hyacinthe.

TURKEY.—Visit of Prince of Serbia to Constantinople—Turkey and its Dependencies—Armenian Church—Suez Canal—Inundation of the Nile—Address to the Khedive—His answer.

GREECE —Fall of the Deligeorges Ministry—Olympian excavations

ASIATIC STATES. PERSIA.—State of the country—Political parties

CHINA.—JAPAN —Japanese Expedition to Formosa.

NORTH AMERICA. UNITED STATES.—Financial difficulties—Bill for inflating paper currency—Presidential veto—Free Banking Bill—North and South—War of races—Disturbances in Arkansas—Austin Riots, &c —Contest in Louisiana—Reinstatement of Governor Kellogg—Death of Mr Charles Sumner—"Fall Elections"—"Third Term" agitation

MEXICO —The State and Ultramontaniam

SOUTH AMERICA. BRAZIL —Ecclesiastical affairs

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC —Rebellion of General Mitre

CHILE.—National prosperity—Affair of Captain Hyde

GUATEMALA.—Affair of Vice-Consul Magee

PERU —New discovery of Guano—Revolt of Pierola.

BOLIVIA —Death of President Ballivian.

ECUADOR. COLUMBIA

RUSSIA.

ON January 23 a very splendid ceremonial was witnessed in the Russian capital, when Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, the second son of the Queen of England, was married to Marie-Alexandrovna, only daughter of the Czar. Five days previously the annual custom of blessing the waters of the Neva took place in presence of a host of foreign princes and native grandees; and as these followed the Czar and the Imperial family from the Winter Palace to the river side, the mass and colour of the great procession were

magnificent to behold. The marriage itself was solemnised in the Winter Palace. For its details we refer our readers to the "Chronicle" department of our volume. The festivities were continued for several succeeding days at St. Petersburg, and the newly-married pair received numerous congratulatory deputations there and also at Moscow, to which ancient capital of the Empire they repaired for a few days on February 5. Shortly afterwards they quitted the Russian dominions, and made their way to England by slow degrees.

One ominous feature, which had been conspicuous in the political history of Europe ever since the war of 1870, was brought into special prominence this year by the processes of legislation. We have seen in Germany the enactment of the Augmented Army Bill, to which the pending legislation on the Landsturm is a formidable corollary. In France, the defeat and impoverishment of the country did not prevent her rulers from making it the first consideration that her fighting powers should be repaired and increased, at whatever cost. When one or two great military Powers set the example, it was felt as a necessity by others not to be behindhand. Russia, Austria, and Italy could not see France and Germany in arms without preparing themselves equally for the possible crisis that seemed to be in the contemplation of their neighbours. And even the smaller States followed suit. Sweden, Belgium, Switzerland, set about making their armies efficient in the best way they could. England only, trusting in her insular position, forbears from the competition, which in her case would seem to be hopeless, and instead of arming her industrial population with sabre and cuirass, looks to her navy for her defence in the day of trouble.

In Russia no Parliamentary sanction was needed for the law which was to enforce the increase of the nation's military strength. It was ordained by a Ukase, or Imperial manifesto, issued on January 1, the purport of which was simply universal conscription. The terms of the Ukase were as follows:—

"We, Alexander II., Emperor and Autocrat of All the Russias, &c., hereby announce as follows to all our loyal subjects, —Being ever desirous to promote the welfare of the Empire and improve the institutions of the same, we have directed our attention to the arrangements regulating the service in our Army and Navy. In accordance with the existing laws, military service is exacted only from the peasants and citizens, a considerable portion of Russian subjects being thus exempt from a duty which ought to be equally imposed upon all. These antiquated arrangements, besides being no longer in harmony with the altered circumstances of our social and political life, are at variance with the military requirements of the present age. Recent events have proved that a State is strong, not by the numbers, but by the moral and intellectual education of its troops. But this education can be secured only by all classes of society alike devoting themselves to the

sacred task of defending the country. Recognising, therefore, the necessity of remodelling the organisation of our forces on the experience of modern times, we, in 1870, commanded our Minister of War to draw up a law providing for an improved system of military service on the basis of universal conscription. When we gave this order, the well-known patriotic readiness of our subjects to sacrifice everything for the good of the country allowed us to hope that the words we addressed to them at the time would find a ready echo in the Russian heart. In this expectation we were not disappointed. Our valiant nobility, as well as the other classes hitherto exempt from conscription, in many loyal addresses, acquainted us with their anxious desire to share the hardships of military service with the rest of the people. We received the expression of their sentiments with feelings of proud and exalted joy, and we thanked Providence for allowing us to reign over a people who inherit self-denying love of country from their ancestors, and who will leave the same sacred legacy to their children. The principles of the projected reform having been laid down by us, a Special Commission was appointed, including members of the various Departments and other competent persons, to draw up the new Military Law. The draught submitted to us by the Commission, and carefully examined and amended by the Council of the Empire, is entirely in accordance with our own views. Fully acknowledging the principle that the defence of the Throne and country is a sacred duty of every Russian, the draft declares every male liable to conscription, and repeals the ancient provisions allowing conscripts to redeem their obligation by payment of a sum of money or the presentation of a substitute. The operation of the new law is, however, not to extend to the Cossacks, whose military service is regulated by special arrangements, nor will the non-Russian inhabitants of the Transcaucasian Provinces and other remote districts enumerated in our Ukase to the Supreme Administrative Senate be liable to the new provisions, it being intended to issue special regulations for these foreign tribes. With these and some other temporary exceptions mentioned in our Ukase to the Senate, the whole male population of the Empire of Russia and the Kingdom of Poland, on attaining the twentieth year of age, will be required to draw lots, the result of the drawing settling, once for all, who is to be enlisted for active service and who not. Those draughted into the Army will be liable to a fifteen years' service. But after a service of six years, or, if possible, even a shorter period, they will be sent home on furlough, and will be called in only in the event of warlike complications demanding their presence in the ranks. As regards those entering the Navy or the corps stationed in remote provinces, their time of service will be fixed by special regulations. Young men who have attended any of the schools of the Empire, whether superior or elementary, will in time of peace be allowed a reduction of their term of active service proportionate to the degree and the nature

of the instruction received. Other important concessions are likewise accorded to them. While sanctioning the law drawn up in accordance with the above fundamental rules, and calling upon our subjects to acquit themselves zealously of the new duties imposed upon them, we have no intention to abandon the policy we have constantly pursued during our whole reign. We have never aspired, nor do we aspire now, to the splendour of military renown. We deem it our highest privilege to lead Russia to greatness by pacific progress and the gradual development of her domestic resources. This development will not be delayed by the formation of a powerful Army and Navy; on the contrary, steady progress is insured by securing the Empire from attack and obviating interference with its tranquillity and peace. The important advantages conceded to young men who have received instruction at schools will, it is to be hoped, act as another incentive to encourage the spread of that enlightenment which we regard as the guarantee of the future welfare of our people.—Given at St. Petersburg, January 1, ALEXANDER."

It was fully believed that under the operation of this new law, if fully carried out, the Russian Army and Reserve would eventually reach a total of nearly three and a half millions of men, being actually half a million in excess of the German force, only not equal to it in practical strength, owing to the unwieldy extent of the Russian dominions. The announcement alarmed and dismayed the population in many parts of the Empire. Among the Tatars of the Russian Black Sea Provinces the dread of universal conscription was so general that all the young men secretly emigrated to Turkey, and even old men were reported to be running away in large numbers, the Turkish skippers of the Levant coast giving them every facility for a prompt and secret passage to Bulgaria and Asia Minor. Similar results being apprehended in the Western or Polish and half Polish Provinces of the Empire, the recruits levied in these districts were immediately placed in the ranks, while it was decided that those "conscribed" in Russia Proper should be summoned only in January.

And as if the possibility of new sanguinary conflicts was indeed the prevailing idea at the Court of St. Petersburg, the event of the year which brought Russia more prominently into connection with European politics than any other was the Conference held at Brussels at the end of July to consider the expediency of introducing certain new rules into the usages of war. The Conference was suggested by the Russian Government, as represented by Prince Gortschakoff. Its first idea seems to have been suggested by the attempt of a private society—the Society for the Amelioration of the Condition of Prisoners of War—to induce the various Governments of Europe to send delegates to a Conference which was to have been held at Paris on May 4 for the purpose of concluding an International Treaty in furtherance of the society's object. The circular sent by this

society to the various Governments bore date March 28, and was transmitted by Lord Lyons to Lord Derby on April 11. Diplomatic etiquette, as interpreted by the English Foreign Office, prevented any notice being taken of it until it should have been forwarded through the French Minister for Foreign Affairs; but the Russian Government responded promptly to the circular of the society by taking the whole matter out of their hands. From the first published despatch of Prince Gortschakoff it would seem that as early as April 6 the Prince had requested Count Brunnow to communicate to the English Government "the answer which we have returned to the proposal of the Society for the Amelioration of the Condition of Prisoners of War," and "the intention we had arrived at for laying before the Cabinets a project for an international code with the object of determining the laws and usages of warfare." So prompt was the Government of St. Petersburg, that in answer to a circular advocating an improvement in the treatment of prisoners, it had by April 17 transmitted to its representatives at Foreign Courts an elaborate programme of seventy-one Articles covering the whole ground of "the usages of war," and itself forming—as Prince Gortschakoff stated—"only a starting-point for ulterior deliberations," which, he trusted, would "prepare the way for a general understanding."

All the countries of Europe were present at the Conference by their representatives. England, however, gave only a very qualified assent to the proceedings. Lord Derby refused to appoint any English Commissioner until the other Governments which were to take part in the Conference should have disclaimed intention of either proposing any change in the laws and usages of war, or of interfering in any way with belligerent rights at sea. This assurance being explicitly given—first by the Russian Government, and then by the other Governments concerned—Sir Alfred Horsford was nominated to be the English delegate at the Conference, but with the strict charge of referring every point to his own Government, which was not prepared to assent to a scheme for the regulation of military operations without considering such scheme in all its bearings. To this firm resolution on the part of Lord Derby it was mainly owing that the tendency, apparent in the project as originally enunciated, to enter on wide and difficult questions of International Law was checked at the outset. The delegates were indeed from time to time tempted into discussions which made it necessary for Sir Alfred Horsford to take his stand upon the distinct assurance given on this point to Her Majesty's Government by all the Powers represented; but in general the Conference did not lose sight of its proper objects. The representatives of the smaller Powers were not unnaturally alarmed by proposals on the part of Russia and Germany which seemed to limit the right of defence. General Voigts Rhetz, the German Envoy, who took a principal part in the discussion, plausibly contended that it was for the interest of the weaker as well as of the

stronger party that war should on both sides be conducted regularly, and under proper authority ; but Belgium, Holland, and Switzerland were well aware that invasions are necessarily conducted by regular armies, while a defence by popular levies can scarcely be regulated by immutable rules. It is obviously a suspicious form of philanthropy which would seek to rid the inhabitants of a country of the burden of defending it. Yet such was unquestionably the scope of that portion of the Project which dealt with the important question—Who are to be regarded as belligerents ? Armed bands not complying with certain stringent conditions were not to possess the rights of belligerents, nor to be considered as regular enemies, and in case of capture were to be “proceeded with judicially.” The effect of this would be to exclude from the privileges of the belligerent condition all defenders of their country who were not under a fixed military organisation. In other words, the spirit of a *levée en masse* would be absolutely paralysed. Baron Jomini, however, the Russian representative, and President of the Conference, sought to quiet the fears of the small Powers, assuring them that his Government did not intend to limit the right of self-defence.

Again, the Project contained regulations on the military authority of invaders so obviously harsh, and tending to legalise the unjust pretensions of the stronger belligerent, that Baron Jomini was constrained to make two provisional modifications before the chapter relating to it was submitted for discussion. Briefly stated, the German doctrine was that occupation on the invader's part is or may be presumptive ; in other words, a small invading force may, by entry on a small portion of the enemy's soil, establish military rights over the whole of the district. Nearly all the other delegates were averse from this doctrine, and the modified text was drawn up entirely in the spirit of their opinion. Presumptive occupation may be, as General Von Voigts Rhetz insists, fully as much in the interest of the invaded as the invader, and to admit it as a principle may have an undeniable tendency to abridge the miseries of a long campaign. It is equally undeniable that the doctrine, with its corollaries, must furnish the invader with a powerful instrument of grinding oppression. The Belgian delegate appeared especially apprehensive of the consequences of such a doctrine. Among other questions arising out of the subject a discussion was carried on with some philosophical refinement as to the lawfulness of taking in advance the proceeds of taxation, and as to the length of the occupation. The German doctrine, however, did not commend itself to the general sense of the Conference. On the cognate question of requisitions and contributions, the demands of General Von Voigts-Rhetz met with no favourable response from the Committee.

The consideration given to the actual horrors, as distinguished from the civil calamities, of war was limited and unfruitful. On the subject of reprisals also, which was reserved, as a difficult

matter, until the end of the sittings, the Conference broke down entirely. In fact, it appears that its mere mention led to demonstrations so unpleasant as to threaten the harmony of the proceedings. The matter could not be discussed without opening the door to recriminations. It was felt, says Sir Alfred Horsford, that "occasions on which reprisals of a severe character had been executed were of far too recent a date to allow the practice to be discussed calmly." Baron Jomini justly feared that the reticence of the Conference on the subject might tend to remove any limits to the exercise of this practice. An excellent and practicable idea, however, was introduced by the French delegate, suggesting the equalisation of penalties for the infringement of international law. At present, in one country a particular act renders the offender liable to the penalty of death, in another to simple imprisonment. General Arnaudeau's proposal, which was not included in the Russian Project, forms an appendix to the amended text. It has not, however, been put into a definite shape, and many will be of opinion that the energy of the delegates has been too much expended upon subjects which related to the specific interests of the Powers they represented to allow of sufficient attention being bestowed on the more legitimate objects of discussion. Still, if it has done nothing else, the Brussels Conference has thrown some light upon the limits of philanthropic action in such matters, and a good deal on the various views of the parties interested. It remains to be seen how far the results of these deliberations will commend themselves to the several Powers. At present, they amount to no more than the recommendations of a committee of inquiry.

It is said that Russia, not daunted by the partial failure of her scheme, contemplates a renewal of the Conference, in hopes that a system of international law may really be based upon the suggestions which the late discussions may have made acceptable.

At the end of the year we notice a statistical report of penal punishment in Siberia, which has its interest for the political student. "Sixteen thousand eight hundred and eighty-nine persons were banished to Siberia between May and October last. One thousand two hundred and twenty of these, criminals of the worst description, were sentenced to hard labour, and 1,624 had been expelled from their communities as obnoxious, drunken, or burdensome. One thousand and eighty women and children over fifteen years of age, with 1,269 younger children voluntarily accompanied the exiles."

SWEDEN.

The course of events in Sweden this year was tranquil and unmarked by any striking event. In his speech proroguing the Diet, in May, the King gave notice of the new military law to be

proposed in the following session, according to which the principle of universal and compulsory service was to be introduced, embracing a period of twelve years, corresponding to twelve yearly contingents, of which six were to belong to the line, and six to the reserve. In this fashion the peaceful Scandinavian kingdom responded to the threatening aspect of its mightier neighbours.

DENMARK.

Ministerial difficulties continued in Denmark, and in July the King was driven to accept the resignation of his Cabinet, which was succeeded by the formation of a new one under the presidency of M. Fonnesbech.

The most interesting event we have to record is the visit paid by the King soon afterwards to Iceland, to which a "constitution" had just been accorded. It was the first time this far distant dependency had ever been visited by a Danish monarch; and the reception now given to King Christian, and his son Prince Waldemar, was of the most cordial description. They also visited the Faroe Islands.

On October 5 the King opened the Session of Parliament with a speech in which he said that he had felt himself bound personally to convey to the members the greetings of the inhabitants of Iceland and the Faroe Islands. He expected that the new Cabinet and the Parliament would harmoniously co-operate in their deliberations upon the proposed reforms. To carry out the measures necessary for the defence of the kingdom, as well as for those objects connected with the public service, fresh grants would be required. With foreign Powers the relations were amicable. The political situation would not yet allow a settlement of the North Schleswig question, but the Government still maintained the hope that a satisfactory solution would be arrived at, which was the desire of both himself and of the Danish people.

A visit of the Emperor of Germany to Kiel, in Holstein, to celebrate the completion of a new ship of the line, as a step in the expected advance of Germany to maritime ascendancy, tended to direct attention to the relations between Germany and Denmark, and to revive rumours of designs on Prince Bismarck's part for annexing Denmark to the new empire. But, after a moment's agitation, these rumours died away. For the time being, the spectre was exorcised.

BELGIUM.

The issue of the Belgian elections in June was a considerable discouragement to the Ultramontane party in both the Senate and the Chamber of Representatives. They had counted upon adding to

their majority, instead of which their forces suffered a diminution ; and though their majority was not actually converted into a minority, the change seemed likely to prevent the success of the clerical policy which was announced as looming in the future. The Clericals suffered defeat in five out of the six arrondissements in which there were contests—namely, at Verviers, Soignies, Thum, Charleroi, and Ath ; while at Ghent they only maintained their position with difficulty by help of the rural electors, who were led to the poll by their curés. On the other hand, they did not gain a single seat in either the Senate or the Chamber. The issue in the Senate was therefore now that their majority, which was before eight (thirty-five Clericals and twenty-seven Liberals), had gone down to two (thirty-two Clericals and thirty Liberals), thus making the two parties very nearly equal. In the Chamber of Representatives, where since June 11, 1872, the Clerical majority had been twenty-two, it was now reduced to fourteen by the displacement of four Clericals by four Liberals, counting eight on a division. The majority might still suffice to enable the Ultramontanes to retain power, but it did not seem likely to enable them, as they confidently anticipated would be the result of the elections at this time, to inaugurate a purely clerical policy. If the party was powerless to do that with a majority of twenty-two, it would probably be still less capable of doing it with one of only fourteen, especially as the majority in the Senate had been proportionately still further reduced.

The Seventh Congress of the International Society, held at Brussels this year, was a very tame and insignificant affair. It was in fact only the Rump of the International which met there. The only speaker who had any encouraging tale to tell of the past year was the Belgian delegate, and it appears from what he said that in Belgium the political side of the Association has been quietly dropped, and that, in fact, the International is there only a fine name for a local trade union. In the mining districts there had been a successful strike. In the valley of the Vesdre there had been an unsuccessful one. The colliers' societies had appointed a Central Executive. An instructive fact was the failure of the International to make any way in Switzerland. The Swiss delegate spoke of the "almost insurmountable difficulties" with which he had to contend. There was scarcely any antagonism between rich and poor, he said, and Ultramontanes and Radicals were alike intensely patriotic. The International did what it could to meet this distressing state of things by issuing tracts and pamphlets to enlighten the people, but the bourgeois reformers were constantly frustrating their efforts by proposing palliatives. The only ground of hope that the delegate could suggest was that the industrial establishments and the land were coming more and more into the possession of the rich, and that this change, by lowering the position of the workpeople, would tend to make them revolutionists in the end.

NETHERLANDS.

The Twenty-fifth Anniversary of the King's accession to the Throne—the Silver wedding-day between him and his Kingdom, according to quaint Teutonic metaphor—was celebrated on May 11 with great popular rejoicings at the Hague, and on the following day at Amsterdam.

A change of Ministry took place in August, when a Cabinet was formed under the Presidency of Dr. Heemskerk. In his speech on the opening of the Legislative Chambers in the following month, the King, after referring to the cordial celebration of his jubilee, said that the relations with foreign Powers were very friendly; that from a financial point of view the State was prosperous, and he had also to announce that the crops were satisfactory. He recommended that great public works should be undertaken or prepared, and mentioned especially the drainage of a portion of the Zuyder Zee. He stated that a scheme for a partial revision of the penal code had been drawn up, and recommended that serious attention should be given to the Education Laws, with a view to consider what modifications were necessary. The news from Atchin, he said, gave reason to anticipate that prudence and perseverance would triumph over the resistance of the enemy. In conclusion the King praised the Army and Navy in the East Indies, and said that the condition of the colonies was satisfactory.

The war in Atchin continued, however; and was not concluded when the year came to an end. When the Annual Budget was laid before the Dutch Chambers, the expenses of the two Expeditions which had been sent out were given as reaching nearly 2,400,000*l.*; but of this sum over 300,000*l.*, though charged against them, would have been spent in any case on the fleet and in army allowances. The real addition, therefore, is two millions, a sum which will not affect the revenue of the Dutch East Indies seriously for the two years over which it is distributed, and which Holland may be excused for believing to be not a very high price to pay for the sovereignty acquired over Sumatra, considering what Java has become in her hands. A graver matter, many Dutchmen think, is the loss of life incurred, amounting to 2,042 in the second Expedition, of whom over 600 are returned as victims of cholera. The check sustained by the original Expedition cost, it appears, only seven soldiers actually slain, but more than ten times that number were wounded in the attack which the Atchinese repulsed.

SWITZERLAND.

The defeat of the scheme for a new Federal Constitution of the Swiss Republic, in 1872, did not discourage the Nationalist

party or make them shrink from another contest with the then successful Clericals and Conservatives. Accordingly, active preparations for renewing the struggle were made. These exertions culminated in a scheme of reform submitted to the vote on Sunday, April 19. It was carried triumphantly in favour of the proposed revision. The popular vote was 237,242 against 122,005. The Cantonal vote was 15 against 8. This scheme differs in many respects from the one proposed in 1872, which was, in many of its features, a more sweeping and radical measure. It was found necessary to conciliate the opponents of the reform by making concessions to their feelings and prejudices. Still, the Constitution of 1874 constitutes a vast reform, and makes serious changes in the revised Constitution of 1848. It makes Switzerland a homogeneous nation, raises it to the rank of a respectable military power, equalises its laws, establishes secular and compulsory education, deprives the priests of much of their power and privileges, and completely subjects ecclesiastical authority to the civil power. Every citizen is liable to serve in the army; the right to call the army out and dispose of it is given to the Central Government. The warlike material—arms, stores, fortifications, &c.—can be claimed and transferred to the central authority. In religious matters the changes are of equal importance. The civil authorities are entitled to “take the necessary measures for the maintenance of public order and peace between the members of the different religious communities, as well as against the encroachments of ecclesiastical authority on the rights of citizens.” (Article 50.) By the same article the civil power can interfere in all matters relating to the creation of new religious communities or the division of old ones; and by subsequent articles it is provided that no bishoprics shall be created without permission, that no new convents are to be founded or old ones re-established, that the burial grounds are to be at the disposal of the State, that the performance of marriage is not to be refused on any grounds of religion or morality, that children born before marriage are legitimatised by the marriage of their parents, that the old law of expulsion and exclusion against the Jesuits is maintained and extended to all other religious orders “the conduct of which is dangerous to the State or disturbs the peace between creeds.” There are other remarkable features in the new Constitution, though inferior in importance to the foregoing. Among them are the uniform application of the law of bankruptcy and other laws, compulsory primary secular education, and the abolition of the penalty of death and of corporal punishment. In short, the new Constitution is a measure on a scale almost equivalent to a revolution.

An International Law Association Congress at Geneva, and an International Postal Congress at Berne, both in September, have to be recorded among the occurrences in Switzerland this year. But we must give what space we have to the more exciting sub-

ject of Church matters, in which the Old Catholic reform movement made steady progress. A meeting of the party was held at Berne in the month of June, which showed that the proposed constitution of a National Catholic Church would be supported by abundance of intelligence and zeal; and perhaps that the chief danger lay in an excess of ardour to advance. One suggestion discussed at the conference was to dispense with the episcopal office in the new Church. But Pfarrer Herzog, of Olten, said wisely that the answer to the question whether they were to remain Catholics or not, hinged on the decision as to the retention of an episcopate. The Old Catholic communion would be hopelessly broken into two antagonistic bodies if the proposal to have a non-episcopal Church were carried into effect. Happily, this question was decided in favour of the episcopate, although provision was made that the National Synod, which was to be the supreme organ of the Church's action, should have power to revoke or deprive a delinquent bishop. The decisions on other knotty points were such as will tend to bring the Swiss National Catholic Church into harmony with the Anglican Communion. Compulsory confession is abolished, as Father Hyacinthe recommended; the enforced celibacy of the priesthood has been abandoned; the "vulgar tongue" is substituted for Latin in the services of the Church; and the cup will, in all likelihood, be restored to the laity in the Communion. The right of the laity to read the Bible in their own language has also been affirmed. In short, the Swiss National Catholic Church may be said to have worked out its reformation. There are signs that it has the sympathy and support of large numbers of the Swiss people; and, although all districts are not equally advanced, there is everywhere a firm purpose to refuse submission to the Vatican, so long as it is unconstitutionally ruled by an absolutist Pope whose conscience is in the hands of the Jesuits.

Father Hyacinthe, meanwhile, could not reconcile his position at Geneva with the political and ecclesiastical circumstances of that city. He resigned his cure there in the course of the summer to the *Conseil d'Etat* in these words:—"Attached from the very depths of my heart to the Church in which I was baptised, whose reform I wish for, but not its overthrow; convinced, besides, by experience now sufficiently lengthened that the Liberal Catholicism of Geneva is neither Liberal in politics nor Catholic in religion, I have the honour to tender my resignation of my functions as curé of this city."

The fact was that Père Hyacinthe had placed himself in a false position at Geneva. His view of things was intermediate between those of the two violent parties which had come into conflict, and consequently gave offence to both. And besides the general disagreements between the majority who desired to push on the reform already accomplished to complete revolution against Catholic traditions as confirmed at Trent, and Father Hyacinthe

and his adherents, who were desirous to stop at the same point as the Old Catholics of Germany, there were individual differences as to the practical treatment of local affairs which formed the immediate occasion, though not the original cause, of the rupture. These related, in the first place, to the occupation by the Ultramontanes, since they were forced out of the old town church of Saint Germain, of an humble edifice not long since finished by them, apparently with a view to their being probably worsted in the conflict for the other. This building they now called their cathedral, and naturally made as much show as they could of the religious rites conducted in connection with it; whilst the ultra-Liberal Catholics were resolved to use the strictly legal rights conferred on them by the Canton, and turn their opponents out of this also, on the ground that the site was originally granted by the Canton to the State Catholic Church, of which they themselves were now the only recognised representatives. Then, again, in the remoter parishes on the Savoy side of the Canton, the old curés were still in possession of all their former rights and functions, though they had refused to take the new oath to the State; and hitherto there had been no such decided attempt to enforce the law as had produced the actual extirpation of all the Ultramontane priests in the Bernese Jura. The majority in the Superior Council resolved on pressing the cantonal power, both to act with more vigour against these recusants in the country, and also to put their own party in immediate possession of Nôtre Dame, the so-called cathedral of the Ultramontanes in the city. Father Hyacinthe contended that the latter procedure would be morally wrong, inasmuch as the church just named had been actually completed by subscriptions raised by Monsignor Mermillod and his adherents since he broke decisively with the State; and he contended also that the law should not be enforced in the country parishes, at least until there was some security that duly qualified clergymen could be procured to take the places of the present incumbents. As he found that he was not only outvoted in the Council but openly insulted by the majority and their supporters outside it, and as it was certain that the Grand Council of the canton, when appealed to, would give effect to its own legislation and comply with the demands he had opposed, he felt his position becoming intolerable, and he therefore threw up the contest, leaving his adversaries in possession of the field.

TURKEY.

The visit of Prince of Milan of Servia to Constantinople in April was a significant fact, and is thus explained by a writer on Eastern politics dating his remarks from Vienna :—"When, well-nigh six years ago, the young Prince, then a minor, was called to the throne, the Regency which conducted affairs in his name

gradually abandoned the line of policy pursued by his predecessor, and became the champion of the great Servian Idea, working rather for the Servia of the future than that of the present. Instead of turning their attention to the material and intellectual progress of the people, as Prince Michael had done, they were only intent on developing the military resources of the country, and encouraging and promoting the national agitation among the kindred races in Turkey and Austria, the result of which was that soon the good relations which had subsisted before with those countries became very unsatisfactory indeed. The coming of age of the young Prince two years ago did not make a notable change in this, for Risties, one of the Regents, and the soul of this policy, kept, as Minister President, the direction of affairs in his hands. What that meant could be best gathered from the journey of the Prince to pay his respects to the Emperor of Russia instead of to the Sultan. This was not exactly calculated to improve the relations with Turkey and to make the Porte disposed to settle any of the pending questions—above all, that of the railway junction—in accordance with the wishes of Servia. Not satisfied with this first slight, the Prince was induced by his adviser to go to Vienna and to Paris before he went to Constantinople. The journey was, indeed, excused by the Exhibition and by the health of the Prince, which was to be recruited in the Pyrenees; still, it was looked upon in Constantinople as an intentional discountesy, and the Porte retaliated by showing itself more stubborn to all Servian demands.

“That second journey was, however, fraught with unexpected consequences. Whether it was the effect of travelling, or the temporary independence which the Prince enjoyed during the three months, the tour matured the youth, and every one who saw him when he passed through Vienna on his way to France and when he came there again on his return journey was struck by the difference which the few months had produced in him. That childish look and manner he exhibited then had disappeared, and you remarked symptoms of that determined will and resolution which are an hereditary feature of his race. Nor did these symptoms deceive, for, scarcely returned home, the Premier who had been until then all-powerful was suddenly dismissed, and Marinovich, the man who was known to be an adversary of the policy pursued by Risties, was placed at the head of affairs. Under his guidance the Prince has adopted a new political programme, towards the realisation of which the journey to Constantinople forms an important step. Instead of spending money on armaments and on the national propaganda, the new Premier is intent upon restoring the balance in the Budget, which had been sadly compromised by the policy of his predecessor in office. Instead of going in for *la haute politique*, he has been endeavouring to establish good relations with Turkey as well as with this country” (Austria).

"According to a letter from Bucharest in the *Allgemeine Zeitung*," says a journalist writing from Paris on Oct. 9, "Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro have now adopted a pacific attitude towards Turkey. This is partly attributable to the representations of Prince Bismarck and Count Andrassy, who warned the Principalities that while they would support them in any reasonable claims, the peace of Europe must not be endangered by premature projects and demonstrations. The Roumanian Ministers were wise enough to profit by this advice. They have had a difficulty in repressing the ardour of the young men who, in spite of the defeat of France, look to it for help, and aim at the adoption of the Republican form of Government. But the prudent counsels lately given to the Roumanian youths by M. Thiers in acknowledging the gold medal with which they presented him have had a tranquillising effect. If Roumania proceeds steadily in the path of progress and internal consolidation, it will in due time reap the fruits of it. The approaching Autumn Manœuvres will have no aggressive character, and the Prince of Montenegro, who it was announced would attend them with a numerous retinue, will not be present, while the Bucharest semi-official paper has contradicted the report of a Treaty of Alliance with Servia. The recent successful financial operations of Turkey, the energy displayed by its War Minister, and the numerous Krupp guns which he has purchased, have also perhaps tended to strengthen the peace policy in the Principalities." Not long after these words were written, however, the murder of some Montenegrins by Turks, at Podgoritzza, led for the moment to very threatening relations between the Prince of Montenegro and his Suzerain.

The Armenian Church continued to be torn by the dissensions of the Hassounists and anti-Hassounists. Towards the end of the year, we are informed, that the churches of the Armenian Catholic community were, in accordance with the policy adopted by the Turkish Government in regard to the schism in that body, being delivered one after another into the hands of the anti-Hassounists. Besides the transfer of the churches at Broussa, at Angora, and at Trebizond, similar proceedings had been taken at Erzeroum. On October 19 two anti-Hassounist priests arrived at Erzeroum with a firman authorising them to take possession of the episcopal palace and of the churches belonging to the Armenian Catholics. The vali, who had already received his instructions from the Porte, sent for the bishop and ordered him to give up his palace and the churches in his diocese. The bishop asked for a delay of three days. This request was refused, and the discussion ended by his eminence and several attendant priests being locked up in a room in the pasha's house. The bishop being thus disposed of, a military force was sent to take possession of the episcopal palace. When the troops arrived at the palace they found it occupied by a mob of about 300 citizens, armed with sticks, who refused to open the doors. The soldiers, however, obtaining an entrance

through an adjoining stable, drove out the partisans of Monsiener Hassoun, and subsequently seized the churches.

In the month of April some troubles seemed to be impending owing to a threat of M. de Lesseps that he would close the Suez Canal if the rate of duties fixed by the late Constantinople Commission upon the tonnage of ships were imposed instead of the higher rate he had himself named. His agent, indeed, was instructed to announce that the ships of Her Majesty's Navy must pay the enhanced dues he demanded before entering the Canal. Merchant vessels which refused to pay were to be compelled either to land their cargoes for transmission across the Isthmus and transshipment to other vessels in the Red Sea, or to resume the old route by the Cape of Good Hope. Such an obstruction of the great route between East and West, though opened mainly by the enterprise and ability of M. de Lesseps, it would have been manifestly impossible to submit to at his hands, and the remonstrances of Her Majesty's Government with the Porte and with the Khedive, and the submission of M. de Lesseps, have prevented a crisis which, in the interests of the author of the Suez Canal, we should have sincerely regretted. That the world would permit the Isthmus Canal to be closed was impossible; the necessity of asserting their sovereign rights was clear both to the Sultan and the Khedive, and after a short and unavailing resistance M. de Lesseps would have had to give way. Happily, before things came to extremities, M. de Lesseps consented, without any reservation, to levy from April 29 only the dues fixed by the International Commission. He came to this decision in consequence of the order given by the Porte to the Khedive to take possession of the Canal. But he protested against the order in due form, thus maintaining intact the rights of the company, while he issued at the same time an order calling a general meeting which would require to take the measures necessary under the circumstances.

An extraordinary overflow of the Nile took place in September. The successful efforts of the Khedive to avert the disastrous consequences which seemed likely to ensue from it, called forth the following address from the European colony of Alexandria on December 8 :—

“TO HIS HIGHNESS ISMAIL PASHA, KHEDIVE OF EGYPT.

“Monseigneur,—The country has witnessed with profound emotion the struggle Your Highness has lately sustained with the impetuous Nile, whose waters, having reached a height heretofore unknown, threatened to invade Egypt. The works commanded by Your Highness, and your constant vigilance, have overcome the great river that was about to invade these rich plains, and success has crowned the noble efforts of your powerful hand, which, by God's help, has been able so energetically to curb that stream.

“The European colony of Alexandria, full of admiration and gratitude, desires to testify to Your Highness its profound senti-

ment by means of a memorial which shall proclaim to future ages what a prince can accomplish, who knows how to combine political wisdom with all the talents and all the virtues of an able administrator.

"The European colony hopes that Your Highness will deign to accept this testimonial—slight though it be—as a proof of our eternal gratitude for the past and our entire confidence for the future. May the Almighty continue to pour His favours and benefits upon your august person! May He grant you long years to accomplish your work of civilisation! May he extend his protecting hand over all your family!

"Such are the wishes which the colony respectfully offers to Your Highness!"

In reply, the Khedive said that it was a real happiness to him that Heaven had given him the power of being useful to the country, and he would do all he could to ensure the prosperity of Egypt and of the European Colony; the changes and improvements which he was endeavouring to introduce showed his sentiments on these points. He then spoke of the recent successes of the Egyptian arms in Darfour. That country was now annexed to the Egyptian Dominions, and thus the population over which the Khedive ruled had been increased by 5,000,000 souls. In the course of five to six years he hoped that Darfour and Central Africa would be united with Egypt by a line of railway, but the cost of its construction would be defrayed by the resources of Darfour and Central Africa alone, without any recourse to foreign capital.

GREECE.

Early in the year the Minister, M. Deligeorges, was driven from power. His tenure of office had been rather fruitful in great schemes for the public welfare than distinguished for the success with which they had been carried out. Projects of trade and navigation and agriculture which were to have enriched the whole Greek nation had done a good deal to impoverish it and had been of no benefit to anyone. These failures had, not unnaturally, damaged the character of M. Deligeorges as a practical statesman, and the coalition which drove him from power and stepped into his place seems to have commanded, at least negatively, something of popular sympathy and support. The new Cabinet, which took office on February 21, was presided over by M. Bulgares, who had received promises of assistance from more than one of his chief rivals. These promises, however, were not observed. The Chamber would hear of nothing but the impeachment of its late Minister; and the various party leaders who were out of power seemed to consider that this and other questions like it would give

them the best chance of scrambling in. On March 28 M. Bulgares, finding it impossible to carry necessary measures which concerned the public service, placed his resignation in the King's hands, and his predecessor was again sent for, and, with the aid of a M. Delgannes, who had been one of the chief promoters of his impeachment, he tried afresh to form a Ministry. The attempt did not succeed. M. Deligeorges was discredited alike by his past career and by his present choice of colleagues: and the King himself, by his disregard of the previous action of the Chamber, came in, not unnaturally, for a considerable share of obloquy. In two days' time M. Bulgares was again summoned to take office, and commenced a new career of the same length as his former one, and subject throughout to the same difficulties. On April 27 he once more resigned, but the appointment of his successor was not more easy than before. M. Koumoundouros was first tried; but the conditions for which he stood out were such as the King could not grant, being of a nature to have made him, as it was observed, rather a new "Mayor of the Palace" than a constitutional and responsible Minister. The refusal of the King was followed by new efforts, but all equally unavailing. Neither M. Zannes nor M. Deligeorges, however willing they might be to lead, could command a sufficient following. On May 7 M. Bulgares assumed office for the third time, and on the next day the Chamber was dissolved—a step which all parties at the commencement of the crisis had declared to be one which the condition of the country made inexpedient, but for which at its close there was evidently no alternative.

The general election, which took place in July, terminated very favourably to the new Government. Upwards of two-thirds of the deputies chosen might be counted as supporters of the Ministry; and two of its most vigorous opponents, Deligeorges and Lombardos, lost their elections.

The negotiations which took place between the German and Greek Governments, in the spring of 1873, for making excavations on the site of Olympia, led this year to the conclusion of a convention, which Prince Bismarck submitted for the approval of the German Federal Council. Professors Curtius and Adler, who were sent to Greece by the Prussian Government to ascertain the probable cost of the excavations, sent in an estimate of 57,000 thalers, which sum was to be included in the Imperial budget for the year 1875. The excavations are to be carried out by a committee on the spot, consisting of an architect and an archæologist, under the superintendence of an official and two scientific men at Berlin.

PERSIA.

The *Lerant Herald* publishes the following letter, dated Teheran, November 25:—"The harvest has been abundant this

year in all parts of Persia, more especially in the important province of Adjerheidjan. But, on the other hand, brigandage has assumed such proportions that great difficulty must now arise in suppressing it. Several of the mail couriers have been robbed on the highway, among others the English mail to Ispahan, and the Russian courier between Teheran and Resht. It is, moreover, a painful fact that troops sent to quell the evil have in many cases made common cause with the brigands, for the simple reason that the unlucky Persian soldiers have received no pay for the last fifteen months.

“The Government has definitively determined to annul Baron Reuter’s concession for the construction of railways and public works, for which it will have, no doubt, to pay a rattling indemnity to the enterprising baron. This concession and other attempts to introduce European civilisation and progress into Persia, have raised up two distinct and opposite parties in the State, each of which has zealous representatives at Teheran, and in all the principal towns in the kingdom. At the head of the party in favour of progress is the ex-Grand Vizier, Mirza Hussein Khan, who is known in consequence as Feringhi, or ‘the Frank,’ while the retrograde party—the Persian Tory party—comprises all the Princes of the Royal family, the principal ecclesiastics, and no inconsiderable part of the population. Both parties have now fully entered upon the struggle, and the opponents of progress, I regret to say, appear to gain ground—so much so, that the Shah, alarmed at the difficulties and dangers involved in the changes he desired to accomplish, is now said to have resolved to make no alteration in the ancient order of things.

“Last week a very imposing ceremony took place at the Palace in presence of all the Princes and dignitaries of the kingdom. The Shah publicly presented a diadem of great value to his favourite wife (who is understood to have been one of the chief promoters of the intrigue against the ex-Grand Vizier), and at the same time decreed that she should bear the glowing but somewhat pretentious title of ‘Melik Afak’ (The Universal Queen).”

CHINA AND JAPAN.

A dispute between these two semi-barbarous empires of the far East arose out of the murder, during the previous year, of some fifty Japanese sailors on the south-east coast of the island of Formosa. An Embassy was sent to Peking to demand redress. The reply given was unsatisfactory. An internal rebellion found occupation for the Japan Government forces early in the spring of this year, and until that insurrection was quelled nothing could be done regarding Formosa. But after its suppression proceedings commenced.

The British and United States' Ministers remonstrated and forbade the subjects of either nation from taking part in the coming expedition. But, undaunted by the remonstrances addressed to them, the Japanese made their descent on Formosa in the month of May. The Chinese showed very little disposition to fight. Very soon sixteen tribes out of the eighteen composing the population of that part of Formosa had sent in their submission to General Saigo, and volunteered every assistance towards subduing the remaining two. Of the latter the Bootangs were the acknowledged culprits in the case of most of the atrocities committed upon shipwrecked men.

The arrival of the Japanese in Formosa was welcomed by the so-called Chinese villages in the south, the inhabitants of which are, however, mostly half-castes. They acknowledge no allegiance to China; they receive no protection from China, but exist in a constant state of warfare with the savages, to whom they pay blackmail. One village alone of a thousand inhabitants offered to support as many Japanese soldiers as General Saigo could send to occupy their district and protect them from the constant inroads of the savages.

The resolute action of the Japanese had its effect. The Chinese Government gave in, and on October 31 a Treaty was signed, by which was admitted, on the part of Japan, the sovereignty of China over the whole of Formosa; and on the part of China, that Japan was justified in despatching the expedition, under the circumstances of the massacre of her Loochewan subjects and the action taken upon it at the time the treaty of friendship and commerce was negotiated between the two countries. The Treaty then provided for the payment of a sum of 500,000 taels, one-fifth of which was in the nature of compensation to the families of the murdered Loochewans, and was to be paid at once; the remaining 400,000 taels as indemnity for the roads and buildings made and erected by the Japanese in Formosa, to be paid when they should retire from the island, which it was stipulated they should do by December 20. The indemnity was to be paid out of the revenues of the Foochow and Tien-tsin customs. The Japanese High Commissioner having thus settled the matter, left Peking at once; with the intention, as it was believed, to proceed very shortly to Amoy and Formosa, instead of returning direct to Japan, in order that the stipulations of the Treaty might be carried out under his own eye.

UNITED STATES.

The politics of the United States of North America this year had little interest for those outside the great Republic. They may be classed generally as having reference to three topics; financial measures; the troubles in the Southern States; and the

elections; the last having a special bearing on the chances of the next Presidential vote, though that vote is not due till 1876.

At the close of 1873 a rather serious deficit in the accounts for the last six months, *i.e.*, the first half of the current fiscal year, was announced. The expenditure had exceeded the receipts by more than seven millions sterling. This large deficit was to be attributed immediately to the panic of 1873, which, by annihilating credit for the moment, caused an extreme depression in every branch of trade. And together with the falling off in receipts from customs and internal revenue, there had been an increased outlay on the army and navy occasioned by the dispute with Spain about the seizure of the "Virginus." According to the President's Message, indeed, the outlay had not exceeded the appropriation; but then the appropriations themselves had been steadily rising ever since President Grant's accession to office. Thus, comparing 1868, the last year of Mr. Johnson's administration, with 1873, the fifth of President Grant's, it appeared that in eighteen items the expenditure had increased 50 per cent., and in some of the items had actually more than doubled within the five years. The period had been one of profound peace, and there had been no such change in the policy of the American Government as would account for so extraordinary an increase. Indeed, in the course of the five years, the army had been greatly reduced in strength, and its cost consequently lowered. The debt had also been very considerably diminished, and, therefore, naturally the interest on it was much less. But, on the other hand, it would seem that though the navy was all but useless, its cost was as great as in 1868; while the cost of Congress had risen from 3,609,135 dols. to 7,251,832 dols., or more than doubled; cost of Indians from 3,988,354 dols. to 7,951,705 dols.; surveys of public lands from 429,496 dols. to 1,128,060 dols.; and public buildings from 1,996,062 dols. to 10,803,648 dols. And, while the expenditure had been thus steadily rising, one tax after another had been taken off or lowered. This repeated reduction of taxation had been small in each instance, it is true, and it was scarcely felt as long as trade continued prosperous; but as soon as over-speculation in railway construction and the loss of confidence in all enterprises managed by boards, consequent on the apparent universality of corruption and fraud, brought on a panic, the result had been the deficit which was now made known.

The new taxes asked for by the Secretary of the Treasury amounted to forty or forty-two millions of dollars. But, as we have seen, the deficit already exceeded thirty-six millions. Mr. Richardson, the Financial Minister, would seem, therefore, to have expected during the next six months either a great revival of trade or a great reduction of expenditure.

To meet the want of money, the Senate and House of Representatives agreed in adopting a proposal for inflating the paper currency by an additional issue of about nine millions sterling.

The banks were, at the same time, to be enabled to increase their circulation of notes to the extent of four or five millions; and the effect of the measure would evidently be to postpone, perhaps for a long time, the resumption of specie payments. All the principal representatives of commerce and finance strenuously opposed the Bill, and it was unanimously disapproved of by every competent authority. Nevertheless the Bill passed through the two Houses of the Legislature in April. But when the measure came before the President for approval, he took upon himself to exercise his constitutional right of veto; and the majority in the Senate was not sufficient to overrule it. In his Message pronouncing the veto, the President said:—"Practically it is a question, whether the measure under discussion would give an additional dollar to the irredeemable paper currency of the country or not, and whether, by requiring three-fourths of the reserves to be retained by the banks, and prohibiting interest to be received on the balance, it might not prove a contraction. But the fact cannot be concealed that, theoretically, the Bill increases the paper circulation 100,000,000 dols., less only the amount of reserves restrained from circulation by the provisions of the second section. The measure has been supported on the theory that it would give increased circulation. It is a fair inference, therefore, that if in practice the measure should fail to create the abundance of circulation expected of it, the friends of the measure, particularly those out of Congress, would clamour for such inflation as would give the expected relief. The theory, in my belief, is a departure from the true principles of finance, national interest, national obligation to creditors, Congressional promises, party pledges on the part of both political parties, and of the personal views and promises made by me in every annual message sent to Congress and in each inaugural address." He added that he was not a "believer in any artificial method of making paper money equal to coin when coin is not owned or held ready to redeem the promises to pay; for paper-money is nothing more than promises to pay, and is valuable exactly in proportion to the amount of coin that it can be converted into." In concluding his Message the President observed:—"It is claimed by the advocates of the measure herewith returned, that there is an unequal distribution of the banking capital of the country. I was disposed to give great weight to this view of the question at first, but, on reflection, it will be remembered that there still remains 4,000,000 dols. of authorised bank-note circulation, assigned to States having less than their quota, not yet taken. In addition to this, the States having less than their quota of bank circulation have the option of 25,000,000 dols. more to be taken from those States having more than their proportion. When this is all taken up, or when specie payments are fully restored, or are in rapid process of restoration, will be the time to consider the question of more currency."

The President's veto took the country by surprise. The

"Inflationists," led by General Butler, and finding their strength in the adhesion of the powerful farmers of the West, had reckoned on their ability to satisfy the wild popular demand for cheapening money by multiplying inconvertible paper. Though the President was known to be personally opposed to the "inflationist" delusion, it was not thought probable he would have made a stand against Congress, which was loyal to him, in order to satisfy the opinion of classes which notoriously distrusted and disliked him. His actual refusal to pass the proposed measure confounded the Inflationists; the "Granges" or leagues of the Western farmers began to feel their power in the country shaken.

Another Bill, avowedly intended to re-establish free banking, but having really, like the last, the object of inflating the currency, was thrown out soon afterwards by the House of Representatives under the influence of a threat from the President that he would veto it, as he had vetoed the avowedly inflationist Bill already mentioned. This Bill, said the New York *Financial Chronicle*, "should be called a Bill to extend the legal tender currency, foster speculation, ruin legitimate trade, and strangle the national credit. The first of these achievements is the main purpose of the Bill. It is accomplished by two steps. The banks now existing are to be released from the obligation to hold greenback reserves against their outstanding notes. A large number of greenbacks are thus to be released from the vaults of the banks and set free to swell the current of the monetary circulation. The reserves of the banks, which are already narrow and scanty, will be weakened. They are now too light for the enormous fabric of credit which rests upon them. How they will bear their burthen if weakened, as the Bill proposes, we need not stay to explain. . . . The second method by which this Bill would augment the legal tender currency is by allowing the banks to issue their notes to any extent that they are able to float them. These notes are a qualified legal tender, and enjoy a forced circulation, just as do the greenbacks. . . . The Bill provides that as soon as a million of these new bank-notes shall have been set afloat, 400,000 dollars of greenbacks shall be withdrawn. Thus, every successive million of new bank-notes would add 600,000 dollars to the aggregate circulation of the country. To give an impulse to this dilatory system of inflation, and to make it sufficiently rapid for our inflationist speculators, the withdrawal of greenbacks is to stop when the amount shall fall to 300 millions.

We now turn to another subject. "The conclusion of the Civil War," says an article in the *Times*, "left the people of the United States face to face with a political problem which, by the very terms in which it was stated, declared the impossibility of its solution. A struggle prolonged through four years, exacting an enormous expenditure of life and of all that makes life worth having, had ended in proving that, of the two great nations—for the real distinction of nationality was apparent to all who

had eyes to see—which were partners in the American Union, the North was the superior in all the elements of material strength, in numbers and wealth, in diffused intelligence and concentrated energy. But the settlement of this point, though indispensable to any permanent combination of order and progress in America, was not in itself an adequate preparation for any such opening of a new and more hopeful chapter in American history. The South, with a wild miscalculation of its forces and a strange misapprehension of the attitude of the outer world towards the institution for which it was fighting, had challenged battle and had been beaten. This victory released the triumphant North from an immediate danger, but it entailed a complication of onerous and far-reaching responsibilities. The emancipation of the Negroes in the Southern States was an unavoidable result of the defeat of their former masters, and the extension of civil rights to them was, in a country thoroughly penetrated with democratic ideas, almost as inevitable. Nor is it difficult to understand why the Government of the United States persisted in maintaining the political disabilities of those sections of the population of the South, which had taken part in the War of the Secession. The rebellion had founded itself upon the doctrine of State rights, and, in spite of amendments to the Constitution, the sphere of power reserved to each of the confederated communities was quite wide enough to afford scope for dangerous movements against the central authority. It would, therefore, be hard to blame the United States for keeping the Southern whites in a position of political nullity; and yet it might have been foreseen that this condition of things would produce intense and well-founded discontent. The emancipated Negroes possessed themselves of the whole machinery of government, made laws, and levied and spent taxes with the reckless gaiety of ignorance. They were led and managed by a host of disreputable adventurers from the North, who soon came to be known by the expressive title of ‘carpet-baggers.’ The Planters, and, indeed, the whole white population of the South, stood outside and looked on while the singular legislative bodies constructed out of these unpromising materials played their ridiculous but mischievous pranks.”

This antagonism of the white and black races caused serious disturbances as the summer of 1874 wore on. They had begun early in the spring in Arkansas. In Little Rock, the capital of that State, two rival politicians, each claiming to be the legitimate and duly elected Governor of Arkansas, contended for the mastery of the executive power with bands of armed men who were dignified with the name of militia. At the head of the one party was a Mr. Baxter, at the head of the other a Mr. Brooks; but who Brooks was and who Baxter was, and what the principles, or even the factions, they represented were, hardly anyone on this side of the Atlantic, and not many in the Eastern States of the Union, professed to understand. What was certain was, that two

gangs of political intriguers had put themselves at the head of all the rowdyism, black and white, that could be gathered together by the rumour of disturbances in Little Rock ; that one of the factions had got possession of the "State House" or local capitol, while the other massed its forces in a large hotel not more than a musket-shot away ; and that the authority of the Federal Government at Washington, after hesitating for a long time to intervene, had at length only gone so far as to use the national army to prevent the followers of Brooks and those of Baxter from flying at each other's throats, and giving up the city and the State to bloodshed and pillage. Obscure negotiations were for a long time pending between the Government at Washington and the legal representatives of the rival governors, and the President appeared to be no less perplexed than the public ; but at length the voice of general indignation, fatigued and disgusted with the intolerable prolongation of a dreary and discreditable farce, compelled the Executive to move. Mr. Brooks, bowing to a second decision of the State Legislature and to the more cogent arguments of a body of Federal troops ready to take action on that decision, evacuated the State House and disbanded his militia on May 20, thus bringing to an end the "Civil War" in Arkansas.

On July 29 Mr. Ames, the Governor of Mississippi, wrote to the President :—"I regret to inform you that I find upon returning here that an alarming condition of affairs exists at Vicksburg. Infantry and cavalry organisations exist, and it is reported that a number of pieces of artillery have been sent to that city ; and these bodies, organised and armed without authority and in violation of law, assume to be guardians of the peace. This is a political controversy. On the one side the Democrats, represented by the whites, claim that they fear frauds on the part of their opponents. The Republicans, consisting mainly of blacks, claim that they fear frauds and also violence on the part of the Democrats." This heralded what were called, from the town in Mississippi where they took place, the Austin riots. At Trenton, in Tennessee, and in Alabama, similar occurrences betokened the bitter feeling existing between the two races. Each had its organisation and its party cry. The "White League" called upon "the men of our race" to lay aside their minor differences and unite in an earnest effort to re-establish "a white man's Government," while the "Coloured League" represented the maintenance of negro ascendancy as the only means of preserving the lives, the properties, and the freedom of the coloured people. In the contests which took place, the whites proved victorious, and massacres of the negroes were reported in many localities.

The chief scene of contest was the State of Louisiana, where, as our last year's history related, Governor Kellogg, the Governor, supported by the negro votes, had been kept in office in spite of the efforts of the McEnery party, by the interposition of the President and his State troops. Kellogg's rule was corrupt

and incompetent. The hope of his enemies was that when the elections took place, he and his "carpet-bagger" Government would succumb to popular dislike, and the representation of the community fall into the hands of the whites. This hope was dashed by the astute tactics of Governor Kellogg, who, fearing that the white party would triumph at the next election, and that it might not then be so easy for the defeated faction to obtain a judicial decision on which to found a claim for Federal intervention, got his Legislature to pass a Registration Law which, as the whites of Louisiana alleged, gave the Government absolute control over the electoral lists, and consequently struck a fatal blow to their chances of a constitutional victory. Shut out from this hope, the White League had not the patience or self-restraint to wait. They assembled on Monday in a mass meeting at New Orleans, and passed resolutions denouncing Governor Kellogg as a usurper, and calling for his resignation. Mr. Penn, who had been elected Lieutenant-Governor two years before by the McEnery party, called the citizens to arms, and the call was obeyed by 10,000 men. The supporters of Kellogg made a feeble resistance, and finally surrendered to the insurgents. The capital of Louisiana was thus in the hands of the whites, and they re-installed in authority the Government which had been ejected by the Federal troops a year and a half previously. But before Governor Kellogg surrendered he had appealed to General Grant for assistance; and this aid the President was bound by the Fourth Article of the Constitution to give, when summoned by a lawfully constituted State Government, such as the powers at Washington had already recognised the Kellogg faction to be. Accordingly the President issued a proclamation calling on the insurgents to disperse within five days, and announcing that the military commanders had orders promptly to repress disturbances.

That his orders might not be misconstrued, the President telegraphed to General Sheridan to proceed to New Orleans, and to various commanders of infantry regiments to hold themselves in readiness if wanted. He ordered General Emory, the commander of the Federal forces in Louisiana, "under no circumstances to recognise the insurgent Government;" and pronounced that "the Government of Mr. Kellogg must be maintained, his deposition being illegal and dangerous to the peace of the South. Nevertheless the situation speedily ended in a compromise. The "Citizens' Government," after Mr. Kellogg's surrender, had so quietly and completely got into their hands the whole machinery of the State Administration that business was quickly resumed and carried on as usual in New Orleans, while the subordinate officers of the ejected faction were being replaced throughout the State by the nominees of their rivals. In this position of affairs, General Emory sought an interview with Mr. McEnery and Mr. Penn. The Federal Commander so far took his stand firmly upon the ground of the Cabinet decision as to insist that Governor Kellogg,

and his officers, and his Legislature, should be restored to the authority from which he had just been driven, and that the arms seized by the insurgents and the arsenal occupied by them should be at once surrendered. But, in consideration of this admission of the supreme power of the National Executive, General Emory undertook to guarantee an amnesty to all who had taken part in the rising. Mr. McEnery accepted these conditions. He seems to have been at some pains to persuade the Government of his loyalty, and he pledged himself that no show of force would be necessary, for that there was no desire on the part of the white citizens to resist the mandate of the Federal Government.

The death of Mr. Sumner, the well-known Senator, on March 11, was nothing short of a national event. The consistent, unflinching champion of the anti-slavery struggle, which he had the happiness of seeing victoriously ended in his life-time, Charles Sumner had at one period been the best-hated politician in America by all who espoused the interests of the slave-holding community. At his death, however, things had changed. The *Louisville Courier-Journal*, an organ of Southern sentiments, said—not without pathos—“Fifteen years ago the news that Charles Sumner was dead would have been received with something like rejoicing by the people of the South. Ten years ago they would have hailed it as a message from Heaven telling them that an enemy had been removed from the face of the earth. To-day they will read it regretfully, and their comment will be, ‘He was a great man; he was an honest man; as he has forgiven us, so have we long ago forgiven him.’” “All his defects,” says another writer, “were blotted out by one shining virtue. He was an honest man. He had never soiled his hands with unclean money, he had never dabbled in contracts, he had never knocked down offices to the highest bidder, he had never used the profession of philanthropy as a cloak for enriching himself in under-hand ways. He was a pure man, though a politician—a combination which is gradually becoming so unfamiliar that we are almost beginning to believe it impossible. It is easy to extol the good old times, and it is easy, too, to ridicule those who extol them; but over Mr. Sumner’s grave there has been a wonderfully unanimous expression of feeling that the loss to the country is the loss of a man who, whatever else he may have been, could never have been influenced by sordid considerations to do what he thought to be against the interests of the country or mankind.”

Throughout the Republic every mark of respect was paid to the deceased Statesman. The funeral services were conducted with great solemnity in the Senate Chamber at Washington, the chamber in which but a week before his death Mr. Sumner had been at his post attending to public business. The body was taken to Boston, and before interment was laid in state in Faneuil Hall.

The example of “an honest man” was, indeed, one to be

cherished and made much of; for at this period the character of American placemen gave too much cause for discontent and distrust: and the general conviction of the corrupt influences under which public affairs were carried on was one chief reason of the great and unexpected shifting of the political balance which took place at the "Fall Elections," as the Congressional elections, which take place in the autumn, are called in the United States. The political revolution which these elections signalled was not less surprising or complete than that which England had witnessed as between the parties led respectively by Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Disraeli. The supporters of General Grant and his policy sustained a signal and unexpected overthrow, his opponents as conspicuous a victory, in every State of the Union. The "Republicans" had become divided against themselves, for already in August the Republican Convention of the State of Pennsylvania—the "Keystone State," as it is called, with reference to its commonly giving the example to the rest of the Union—met to consider who should be recommended for the office of President when that office should become vacant in March 1877. They decided it should not be General Grant. A resolution was submitted to the Convention "endorsing" his claims in the event of his becoming a candidate, but it was negatived by a heavy majority. The Convention went further, and nominated Mr. Hartranft, Governor of Pennsylvania, as the next President of the Union. The campaign was thus opened. Notice was served on General Grant that he would not again secure the support of the Republican party. So much might, indeed, have been presumed from the symptoms of rebellion that preceded the last election. Nothing could have been worse managed than the Independent Republican cause on that occasion, but it was evident to all observers that these secessionists from the central organisation of the party had in them the nucleus of a successful rebellion. They were defeated then, but they could not be defeated again. The vote of the Pennsylvania Republican Convention this year expressed their belief in this view. The managers of the party saw that they could not win again if they continued to make General Grant their candidate, and they resolved to adopt another in his stead.

It is certain that the next Presidential election, though not to take place for two years, was what chiefly influenced the action of political parties now. A strong impression had been created of the corruption prevalent in every department of the Administration; and there was abundant evidence to justify the impression, although the President himself was probably much less implicated in the evil than his responsible advisers or subordinate officials. This being the case—his Administration being, whether with or without his fault, deeply charged with jobbery, and conspiracy, and fraud—the "Washington Ring" being even a name by which its critics had come to designate it, a great mistake was made by his partisans in setting up the "Third Term" as one of their party

cries at the elections. No President of the United States had ever been elected for a third period of office before; it was not likely that such a mark of public approval would be bestowed on one whose practical merits as Head of the State were held so very questionable by a large part of the community.

We give, from the letter of the *Times* correspondent, a more special account of this victory of the Democrats over the Republicans:—

“The elections held on November 2 and 3 in twenty-four of the States of the American Union, taken in connection with the elections previously held in nine other States, show that there has been a political revolution in this country. The Democrats and other opposition elements have defeated the Administration Republican Party. In every State that has voted, a change has been recorded against the Republicans in the popular vote. This change has reduced the majorities in the Republican States, increased the majorities in the Democratic States, and transferred some States—notably Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Illinois—from one party to the other. Massachusetts has elected a Democratic Governor by 8,000 majority—a most extraordinary thing for that State to do—and her delegation in Congress will contain only six Republicans out of eleven members. New York has given a majority of 40,000 for Samuel T. Tilden, the Democratic candidate for Governor, who has defeated General Dix, probably the strongest man whom the Republicans could have nominated for that office. In Pennsylvania the result is close, with chances of the Democratic majority exceeding 5,000, so that the tidal wave, it will be seen, has almost washed away this strong Republican bulwark. In New Jersey the Democrats have 12,000 majority, and have checked the aspirations of the Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Robeson, who desired to be United States’ Senator from that State. In the West, the large Republican majorities heretofore given by States like Kansas, Minnesota, Michigan, and Wisconsin are almost annihilated; while Illinois, which gave Grant 57,000 majority, now gives 20,000 the other way. In the South, with the exception of South Carolina, the Democrats have swept the country from Maryland to the Rio Grande, increasing their majorities to enormous figures in Kentucky, Virginia, Georgia, Texas, and Arkansas; turning Florida, Alabama, and Tennessee over; and settling the Louisiana muddle by a decision against Kellogg and in favour of the McEnery party. In South Carolina the result is the election of the candidate of the ‘Ring,’ Chamberlain, Republican, by about 6,000 majority. This State in 1872 gave Grant 49,500 majority. The fusion of the honest Republicans with the Democrats in this State has demonstrated such great strength, however, that the day of political corruption in South Carolina has passed by, whoever may be elected Governor. In Tennessee, where Grant had nearly 9,000 majority, the Democrats now have 45,000 majority.

"A number of causes have united to produce this general Democratic triumph, which is much greater than even the most sanguine of that party expected. The chief causes were the financial revulsion of last year and the depression of trade this year. Whenever these monetary crises come, it is the custom of the American people to lay the blame upon the party which happens to be in power at the time, and the consequence is, usually, a reverse for that party at subsequent elections. This was the case with the financial panics of 1837-8 and 1857-8. The Democrats were the party in power on both occasions, and the elections of 1838 and 1858 both showed the movement of a revolution against the Democrats and in favour of their opponents—the Whigs in the former year, and the Republicans in the latter. Now, with the crisis of 1873-4, the Republicans are in power, and the reverse comes to them and in favour of the Democrats. To carry the analogy further, the Whigs elected their President in 1840, the Republicans theirs in 1860; and the Democrats may therefore reasonably expect to be successful in the Presidential election of 1876, although they will have a hard contest to gain the victory.

"Other causes, some general and some local, conspired towards this reverse for the Republicans. The 'third term' agitation was chief among these. The great majority of the people of the United States were convinced that President Grant and his friends were intriguing for his third election to the Presidency, and this converted many Republicans to Democracy. Then in nearly every Republican State the air was full of reports of political corruption; the dominant party was controlled by men of whom the public party had become tired; and the desire for any change that might better this, was uppermost in people's thoughts. In Massachusetts the Republicans had the folly to nominate a candidate for Governor who was committed to the 'Prohibitory Liquor Law,' and the popular opposition to this law elected the Democratic candidate, and a Legislature which, though containing a decided majority of Republican members, will replace this law by a 'Licence Law' permitting the sale of liquors. Another chief desire of both Republicans and Democrats in that State was to get rid of General Butler, and this was shown by his defeat for Congress in a district which was otherwise largely in favour of Republicans. Butler takes his defeat philosophically, and on the day after election said, 'If the Republican party can stand its losses, I think I can bear my share.' In many Congress districts the Democrats gained members through the unpopularity of Republican candidates, or quarrels among the Republicans. In the whole country the only place where the Republicans held their own, seems to have been Philadelphia, where the Republican candidates, with two exceptions, were chosen by increased majorities. These exceptions were unpopular men whom the Democrats defeated."

MEXICO.

In this country many districts were kept in a state of constant disorder in consequence of the fanaticism of the Ultramontane clergy. An American missionary named Stephens having attempted to establish a Protestant school in the little town of Ahualulco, the monks of a Franciscan convent in the place so excited the Indians by their violent denunciations of him, that a number of men attacked the mission-house, killed the missionary, and carried away all his property. Similar acts of fanaticism took place in other parts of the Republic: several officials in the provinces of Mexico and Morelos were killed because they had taken the legal oath to the Constitution, against which the clergy loudly inveighed in the pulpits; and at Puebla the Indians robbed the Protestant church, and severely wounded several members of the congregation. Some of the bishops and lower clergy recommended the people to obey the Government, but others maintained a defiant attitude; and the director of police at Guanajato found it necessary to issue an order stating that any clergyman appearing in canonicals in the streets, or holding a religious procession, would suffer the extreme penalty of the law. The monasteries, which had been abolished in all parts of the country, have either been converted into hospitals, libraries, &c., or pulled down in order to make room for the construction of new streets or public buildings. In the capital, the late monastery of St. Augustine now contains an excellent national library, which comprises the literary treasures of nearly all the monasteries, the university, and the college of San Juan de Lateran, and has been decorated with frescoes, &c., by Mexican artists. New schools, too, are being erected in most of the towns and villages, and in some of them the attendance at school is made compulsory. Serious political disturbances broke out in Mexico as the summer advanced.

BRAZIL.

In the New World as in the Old, the Ecclesiastical question continued to rule the hour. Whether the State should be supreme in its own domain, or whether the Church should determine the limits of both the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction, divided the opinions of men in Brazil as in Germany. In a speech delivered before the Chamber in June, the Viscount de Caravella, Minister for Foreign Affairs, sketched the course of the conflict between the bishops and the Government, and the diplomatic negotiations that had taken place with Rome to bring it to a close. Though the struggle had led to the imprisonment of two of the bishops, it would seem that there had been a greater tendency

towards conciliation shown by the Vatican, to which the case was submitted, than had been witnessed in the Old World. The Government continued to cherish the hope that the Holy See might yet bring matters to a satisfactory result, by inducing the bishops to abandon the attitude of opposition which they had assumed. On the part of the Government there was no intention of giving way. "The sovereignty of Brazil," said the Viscount de Caravella, "cannot admit another sovereign over it. That question will, I am confident, be handled by all with the prudence requisite to ensure a satisfactory result ; but if another sovereignty were elevated above the national sovereignty, I know not truly what would happen." Earlier in his speech the Minister, referring to the interdict of the Bishop of Olinda against the congregations of his diocese which harboured Freemasons, showed that by this interdict the bishop violated the Constitution of the Empire. "It is" he said "unquestionable that the bishop could not render null and void the fundamental law of the empire, which is that no edict, or bull, or any other Pontifical decree can be allowed to be of force or effect among us without the consent of our sovereignty." In excommunicating Freemasons and laying congregations under interdict because they received members of that society, the Bishop of Pernambuco (who was the first to take active steps in the matter) proceeded on the authority of the Holy Father, who had denounced Freemasonry and laid Freemasons under ban. The bishop maintained that the penalties inflicted by him were spiritual, and that he was therefore acting within his province. In reply, the Foreign Secretary alleged that the bishop's spiritual sentences had civil effects ; that he could not, or did not, so limit his interdict that it should not produce civil injury, since the dissolution of such societies—as required by him—must rupture many obligations and engagements entered into in strict conformity with the laws of the land. Even a religious society or congregation has its civil rights and duties in harmony with the country's civil legislation ; and counting on permanence, may (for example) construct hospitals and contract debts for the execution of works, which would be made void by its abolition or dissolution. It was, therefore, necessary to protect such associations in their civil rights, and when the bishop refused to withdraw the interdict, it became inevitable that he should be prosecuted. As the bishop might still be obstinate, however, it was resolved to open negotiations with the Holy See, not as acknowledging its supremacy, or in order to ask it to exercise any act of sovereignty, but to secure the aid of its authority to bring the bishop back into the paths of obedience to the laws of the empire.

MINOR SOUTH AMERICAN STATES.

Wars and revolts were somewhat abundant among the South American States this year. In the ARGENTINE REPUBLIC a rebel-

lion broke out against the newly elected President, Señor Avelanada, headed by General Mitre, who had formerly held the supreme post himself. The rebellion promised for a time to be formidable; but after a few weeks it collapsed; and the Argentine funds which had fallen considerably on the first alarm, rose again, to the contentment of those foreign bondholders who had resolutely held on in hope of better times. Mitre fled to the neighbouring Republic of Uruguay, and the other rebel chiefs retreated to the interior.

No doubt, this insurrection, whether abortive or not, had its origin in the growing wealth and consideration of the inland provinces as compared with Buenos Ayres. But the gradual change that is taking place in the character of the latter province, and especially of the great port which is its capital, may have quite as much to do with the widening of the gulf between the "men of the harbour" and the people of the plains. A differentiation of race may be noted as rapidly making progress. The current of immigration to Buenos Ayres flows strongly and steadily, and the proportion of the population in this province that are of European birth is very large. Since the fall of Rosas nearly 200,000 Italians, Frenchmen, Spaniards, and Englishmen have settled in the province, and a couple of years ago the Italian population of the city of Buenos Ayres alone was estimated at 46,000. Thus while the inland provinces remain Spanish in character, or rather Spanish corrupted with the infusion of Indian blood, the people of Buenos Ayres are becoming less and less Spanish. The traits of English, French, and Italian character in the population of the city are very marked, and while they tend to consolidate the supremacy of the city in commerce and in politics, they do not make Buenos Ayres more beloved by the pastoral communities of the provinces up-country.

CHILI.

The opening of the Chilean Congress gave President Errazuriz an opportunity for calling the attention of foreign nations to the continued peaceful development of the Chilean Republic and its increasing prosperity. "Our institutions," he observed in his message, "have been consolidated, our credit has increased, and freedom and right are becoming more and more firmly rooted in every sphere of national activity." After stating that the international relations of Chili are in a satisfactory state, and expressing a hope that the frontier disputes with Bolivia and the Argentine Republic would be speedily settled, the message described the new channels of communication which had been opened since the past session. The railway between San Felipe and the Andes had been completed and opened for traffic, as also the line from Talcahuano to Chillan—an extremely important undertaking begun by the late Government. The works on the new

lines between Curico and Angol were making rapid progress, and there was no reason to anticipate any delay or insuperable obstacle to their completion. It was hoped, too, that railway communication would be established with Talca by means of the bridges which had already been built over the cross streams. The President further called attention to the necessity for a second railway between Santiago and Valparaiso through the provinces of Melipilla and Casabianca, and asked for authority to make the necessary surveys.

Chili was brought for a time into disagreeable relations with the British Government by the affair of Captain Hyde, a naval officer in command of the "Tacna," a British steamer belonging to the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, who by unskilful management allowed his vessel to go down, with great loss of life, soon after quitting the port of Valparaiso. A court of enquiry held at that place by the British Consul and other British subjects concurred in reprimanding the master, who, after the inquiry was over, prepared to leave for England. But the indignation of the Chili Government for the loss of the Chilians who had gone down in the "Tacna" had been by no means appeased. The vessel in which Captain Hyde was sailing was detained at Lota, a port on the coast, and he was seized and incarcerated; then brought to Valparaiso and incarcerated again. Mr. Drummond Hay, the British Consul, at once protested, and demanded that he should be set at liberty. When this was refused, the British Minister at Santiago, Mr. Rumbold, took up the matter, and a diplomatic controversy ensued which terminated in the admission by the Chilean Government of its error, the liberation of Captain Hyde, and the payment or promise of an indemnity.

In GUATEMALA also, an outrage was committed on a British official, Mr. Magee, from the jealous ferocity of the commandant at San José, who was with difficulty restrained by his own people from putting his victim to death after wantonly inflicting two hundred lashes on him. Subsequently the State of Guatemala had to tender an apology to the British flag for the occurrence. The *Panama Star* of September 21 says:—"Her Britannic Majesty's sloop of war 'Tenedos' arrived on the 12th inst. from San José, the seaport of Guatemala, where part of the British fleet under Admiral Cochrane was ordered to assemble in reference to the affair of Mr. Magee. It is satisfactory to be informed by the captain of the 'Tenedos' that everything connected with the ceremony of saluting the English flag, as had been agreed on by the Guatemala authorities, took place with demonstrations of unaltered friendship on both sides. Two flag poles were erected on shore, and on the arrival of 300 Guatemala troops and saluting artillery from the capital, accompanied by the Secretary of State, who represented President Barrios, Admiral Cochrane landed on October 4, with an equal number of marines, blue-jackets, and some forty officers of the fleet. On all being ready, the English

flag was slowly hoisted up and saluted with twenty-one guns, the saluting party being on one side of the square and the Admiral and the English forces and their band on the other. The salute was returned from the ships, and a disagreeable international question amicably settled. The officers of the 'Tenedos' speak very highly of the courteous manners of the Minister and the Commander of the Guatemala forces." The indemnity agreed on of 10,000*l.* was paid to Mr. Magee.

PERU.—The announcement of some new discoveries of guano produced a favourable effect on Peruvian finance. Foreign speculators of sanguine temperament rushed greedily to the new venture; but little confidence was felt in it by the more sober-minded, who remembered the notorious fallibility of the governmental schemes of this Republic.

A rebellion took place late in the year, headed by M. Nicolas de Pierola, who had been Minister of Finance in the Cabinet of President Balta, and took a prominent part in inducing the Peruvian Congress to approve of the concession of the guano contract to the firm of Messrs. Dreyfus and Co. After the election of President Pardo he was accused before the Congress of embezzlement of public money on a large scale. He was found guilty by the Lower House, but was acquitted by the Senate on the ground of insufficient evidence, and then proceeded to Chili, where he and the late General Vivanco were the chiefs of the Peruvian malcontents, and instigated all the conspiracies which were got up in Peru against the present Government. The failure of these conspiracies seems to have led Pierola to plan an invasion of Peruvian territory, in the hope that his presence in Peru at the head of an armed band of Peruvian exiles would gather round him a sufficient number of sympathisers to break the power of President Pardo. With this object he proceeded to Paris, and thence to England, where he purchased the steamer "Talisman" from Messrs. Galloway and Co., of Liverpool, and had it amply stored with war material of all kinds.

On October 21 the people in Peru were wondering at the activity displayed by the Government squadron, which had been distributed along the coast, and the ram "Huascar" was sent to sea under sealed orders. On the arrival of the English packet steamer at Callao from the South the news came that the "Talisman," a large steam vessel, had left Talcahuano under English colours, and proceeding to Quintero, a port about fifteen miles north of Valparaiso, had there received on board a number of discontented and exiled officers and civilians, who, after the fall of Balta, sought refuge in the neighbouring Republic. The Consuls of Peru acquainted their Government of the circumstance, as the expedition evidently seemed destined to effect a landing on some part of the Peruvian coast. On the 22nd the "Talisman" touched at Pacasmayo. The captain of the port went to make a visit on

board, followed by a launch full of soldiers. He was immediately put in irons, and the launch was fired at and went back. The "Talisman" then steamed away. On November 2, however, the insurgents were discovered in the small port of Pacochas, on the southern coast, by the "Huascar," just as they were unloading the war material from the "Talisman." On perceiving the iron-clad, they hastily collected all they could carry, disarmed the coast-guard, and proceeded by the railway to Moquegna, leaving the "Talisman" with more than half of its freight and the whole of its crew in the hands of the captain of the "Huascar," who proceeded to Callao with his booty.

A Provisional Government was then formed by the rebels, having for its President, Pierola. Proclamations were issued and liberal promises of payment made to those who joined the insurrectionary army. When this intelligence was announced to the Government at Lima the most energetic steps were taken to cope with such a formidable disturbance. Steamers were chartered and national troops hurriedly embarked at Callao for the scene of hostilities. Eventually the rebellion was suppressed, and Pardo remained master of the situation.

BOLIVIA.—Of this State, which lost by death its virtuous President, Adolphus Ballivian, early in this year, an instructive account is given by a correspondent of the *Cologne Gazette*. Its geographical position, the writer says, is most unfavourable; being separated from the sea by the desert of Atacama, whose harbours are only of use to the metal trade of that barren province, its commerce must pass through the Peruvian towns of Arica and Tacna, as its natural channel, the river Madeira (which falls into the Amazon), has as yet not been opened. The political history of Bolivia records only a series of revolutions: not one of its Presidents has been able to complete the legal tenure of his appointment, and most of them were murdered. The Ultramontanes took advantage of the weakness of the Government to procure the withdrawal of the religious liberties granted by Bolivar, and the internal anarchy was increased by a complication with Chili, who won an easy victory over her neighbour, and compelled Bolivia to give up to her a considerable part of the rich mines in the Atacama desert, besides securing other important advantages. Notwithstanding all this, however, Bolivian affairs have somewhat improved of late. The assassination of President Morales, in November 1872, placed the direction of affairs in the hands of Adolphus Ballivian, an able and honest man, who succeeded in mitigating the party struggles which had been so disastrous to his country, but was prevented by his sudden death from carrying out his policy of reform. His successor, the venerable Dr. Frias, who has grown grey in the service of the State, is universally respected and esteemed. He has already taken measures for the maintenance of peace both at home and

abroad: the frontier dispute between Bolivia and Chili has been settled, so as to attract capital from the latter country, and every effort is being made to raise the credit of the State.

ECUADOR is described by the same writer as completely under the dominion of the priests, thanks to the efforts of its energetic President, Garcia Moreno, whose rule is a system of unparalleled terrorism. A Jesuit from Crefeld, Father Menden, is the most powerful man in the country; not only the President himself, but the Papal delegate, Archbishop Vanutelli, are completely under his influence. The whole of the higher education of Ecuador is in the hands of the Jesuits, while the lower is in those of the 'Brothers of the Christian faith.' The submissive Congress has given to the Jesuits all they asked; the press is fettered, a censorship has been introduced, and a yearly minimum grant of 10,000 dols. voted as Peter's pence. The future of Ecuador is almost hopeless, for even if the Liberals gained the upper hand, they would hardly be able to do anything for the exhausted country except to destroy what their predecessors created.

THE FEDERATION OF COLUMBIA has much more favourable prospects. Not long ago it was engaged in a civil war between the clericals and the advocates of freedom of conscience, in which, after much bloodshed, the latter were victorious. Since then, with the exception of some local disturbances in Panama and Cauca, peace and order have prevailed. The last President of the Federation, Dr. Murillo, was universally esteemed, even by the Ultramontanes, for his skilful and judicious administration, and his successor, M. Perez, is a man of education and experience, with decided Liberal tendencies, and is worthily carrying out the policy of Dr. Murillo. Columbia, he goes on to state, is justly valued on account of the richness of its natural treasures, its favourable position between two oceans, and its numerous harbours. If the President should succeed in spreading education in the country, which he has already begun to do with the assistance of German professors, and in making roads and railways—especially the Magdalena line—so as to facilitate the approaches to the mining districts, there will be every prospect of an extensive development of the prosperity of Columbia. Her greatest danger lies in her loose Federal Constitution, and the great powers of the separate States, which weaken the authority of the central Government; but here, too, a remedy is about to be afforded, for the powers of the Federal President will probably be enlarged by the present Congress.

RETROSPECT

OF

LITERATURE, ART, AND SCIENCE, IN 1874.

LITERATURE.

LITERATURE has been slightly on the decrease this year; the number of books published, exclusive of American importations and new editions, being 3,351, as against 3,463 in the previous year. The only increase seems to have been in the department of scientific works.

In our survey of public opinion on current literature, we begin by noticing some of the *Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire*, and, though it was published late in the year, will mention first, as being of far the most importance, "The Greville Memoirs a Journal of the reigns of King George IV. and King William IV" By the late Charles C. F. Greville, Esq., Clerk of the Council to those Sovereigns Edited by Henry Reeve, Registrar of the Privy Council."

Mr. Greville, who was Clerk of the Council in Ordinary for nearly forty years—that is, from 1821 to 1861—was a great-grandson of the fifth Earl of Warwick, and a grandson of the third Duke of Portland. At the age of twenty he was appointed private secretary to Lord Bathurst, an appointment which he afterwards regretted, as it interrupted his education, and prematurely plunged him into a life of idleness and frivolity. Seven years afterwards he succeeded to the clerkship of which the reversion had been secured to him, and for the remainder of his life was doomed to be a spectator only of the great events in which we cannot help fancying he must have longed at times to be an actor. Mr. Reeve tells us in his preface that he was contented with his social position, and free from ambition and vanity. That he was free from vanity there is abundant evidence to show. But the very regrets which he pours forth over the inferiority of his own attainments, and the unsatisfactory nature of the life he was compelled to lead, indicate the existence of higher aspirations, and a consciousness on his own part that he was fitted for something better than the routine duties of a public office, varied only by the pleasures of the field, the turf, and the card-table. At times he seems to hate himself for his connection with the turf, and the necessary intimacy with low characters which it entailed on him. And after leaving the company of men of letters, or statesmen of literary culture, we find him lamenting his own inability to take part in the conversation, and the want of regular study to which he attributes it, as if he felt qualified by nature to have enjoyed and adorned such society. That he looked on his life as a wasted one it seems difficult to doubt, after reading his reflections on returning home from Newmarket or from a dinner at Holland House. But this very consciousness of his own disqualifications is a tribute to his natural powers, and disposes us to place a very high value on his opinions

upon subjects which he understood. Indeed, his observations upon men and measures would be sufficient by themselves to proclaim his abilities to the world. They evince thought and penetration, and are expressed with elegance and vigour. When we add to this that he lived in the best society of the day, both political and fashionable; that, though he felt strongly on politics, he was singularly free from party ties; and that he was on terms of confidential intimacy with several of the political leaders on both sides, we have sufficiently accounted for the great interest and importance which we have ascribed to these volumes.

They contain, however, only a portion of the memoirs which he left behind him, and terminate with the accession of her present Majesty. There can be little doubt that the part which is reserved for a later generation of readers will be still more valuable. Imagination and some other intellectual qualities generally attain their highest perfection during the physical prime of life; but accuracy of social observation, judgment of character, and felicity of delineation are accomplishments which ripen late. It is true that, from circumstances combined with natural faculty, Mr. Greville became in early youth a cool-headed man of the world. The crudeness which belongs to inexperience is indicated in the earlier part of his Journals by a certain hardness and intolerance which were probably mitigated in after life.

Some of Greville's characters are remarkably well drawn. Brougham in particular, whom he seems to have thought mad, while his diary abounds in anecdotes of great and distinguished personages, which will doubtless be devoured with avidity. Of Brougham he gives the following capital anecdote.—He dined with a large party at Buxton's brewery on beefsteaks and porter. They dined in the brew-house, and afterwards went over the establishment. Lord Grey was there in star, garter, and riband. There were people ready to show and explain everything. "But not a bit Brougham took the explanation of everything into his own hands—the mode of brewing, the machinery, down to the feeding of the cart-horses." After this it is comparatively tame to read that he did the same thing at the British Museum, and would suffer nobody but himself to explain anything, not even the mineral collection, which they all thought must pose him. Some of Mr. Greville's contrasts are very entertaining. Lord Melbourne was a fine Greek scholar and a good theologian; and when Greville leaves him after an important political interview, he finds his valet just sweeping off a bonnet and shawl from a side table. Melbourne, it seems, was anxious to make Arnold a bishop, because his sermons were so good, but found it would "make a great uproar to put him on the bench," so left him to fructify at Rugby. Greville notices also the contrast between Rogers and Moore and their respective styles of poetry—the one owing half his popularity to the point and delicacy of his verse, though the greatest sensualist in existence, the other, so licentious a writer, being a model of domestic virtue. He was much struck also with the contrast between Macaulay's appearance and his talents. "It was not till Macaulay stood up that I was aware of all the vulgarity and ungainliness of his appearance. Not a ray of intellect beams from his countenance; a lump of more ordinary clay never enclosed a powerful mind and lively imagination." He is delighted with Rogers' breakfasts, where he meets the regular literary set—Sydney Smith, Tom Moore, John Russell, &c. "Such bursts of meriment, and so dramatic." Certainly, he adds, "breakfasts are the meals for poets." Wordsworth he describes as "hard-featured, brown, wrinkled, with prominent teeth and a few scattered grey hairs, very cheerful,

merry, courteous, and talkative. . . . He is more conversable, with a greater flow of animal spirits, than Southey."

Of the Royal Family these volumes, as might be expected, contain abundant records, particularly of the Duke and Duchess of York, of our last two Kings, and of her present Majesty. At Oatlands there were parties every week from Saturday to Monday. The Duke dined at eight, and rose from table at eleven. He then played whist as long as anybody would play with him, his points being "fives and pomes." The Duchess played half-crown whist, rarely went to bed, and preferred sleeping on a sofa. She was passionately fond of dogs, and kept nearly forty. To give her a dog, a monkey, or a parrot was the surest way to her favour, and any offence committed against one of these animals she never forgave. Her fondness for dogs extended also to horses; and at Oatlands she was mistress of the stables. If a carriage and horses came round without her consent being first obtained, they were ordered back again, if she happened to hear of it in time. She was, however, a very agreeable hostess; perfectly frank and easy in her intercourse with all about her. She once told Greville and some other gentlemen at Oatlands that she couldn't afford to sit to Lawrence for her picture, upon which they all offered to pay for it, a proposal which she accepted without ceremony. The Duke, we are told, was the only one of the Princes who had "the feelings of an English gentleman." Of George IV. and William IV. the memorials are less complimentary. Of the former his anecdotes are more scandalous, of the latter more amusing. Of her present Majesty Mr. Greville gives many interesting little anecdotes. He records her appearance at a child's ball when she was ten years old, her first appearance at the Drawing Room in 1831, her visit to Burghley in 1836, when a pail of ice was upset into the Duchess of Kent's lap, and, more interesting than all, her first Council on June 21, 1837. And with the contrast between herself and her uncle with which these volumes terminate we must also conclude our notice of them —

"No contrast can be greater than that between the personal demeanour of the present and the late Sovereigns at their respective accessions. William the Fourth was a man who, coming to the throne at the mature age of sixty-five, was so excited by the exaltation that he nearly went mad, and distinguished himself by a thousand extravagances of language and conduct, to the alarm or amusement of all who witnessed his strange freaks. . . . The young Queen, who might well be either dazzled or confounded with the grandeur and novelty of her situation, seems neither the one nor the other, and behaves with a decorum and propriety beyond her years, and with all the sedateness and dignity the want of which was so conspicuous in her uncle."

After this last quotation from Mr. Greville's book, we pass by a natural transition to the notice of Mr. Theodore Martin's "*Life of the Prince Consort*," the first volume of which appeared shortly before Christmas, thus most appropriately carrying on the attention of readers from the dawn of the Queen's reign to the first happy years of her marriage, and showing how the anticipations of those were fulfilled who looked to a more dignified and decorous rule under the young daughter of the branch of Kent than her sexagenarian uncle had exhibited. Mr. Martin has accomplished his literary taste so far with great success. His biography of Prince Albert would be valuable and instructive even if it were addressed to remote and indifferent readers who had no special interest in the English Court or in the Royal Family. Prince Albert's actual celebrity is inseparably associated with the high position which he occupied,

but his claim to permanent reputation depends on the moral and intellectual qualities which were singularly adapted to the circumstances of his career. In any rank of life he would probably have attained distinction; but his prudence, his self-denal, and his aptitude for acquiring practical knowledge could scarcely have found a more suitable field of exercise than in his peculiar situation as the unacknowledged head of a Constitutional Monarchy.

The extracts which Mr. Martin has been allowed to make from the Queen's letters and journals, though they are designed only to illustrate the history and character of the Prince Consort, have an independent interest of their own. The glimpses of a domestic life as beautiful as that of an idyll have been universally appreciated. Her Majesty's minute and picturesque account of her visit, in company with the Prince, to his home at Coburg would be interesting if it were the diary of a private person. The judgment which she formed of the characters of some of her royal visitors, and especially of the Emperor Nicholas, have a still higher value; and her political utterances, though her opinions may have been cultivated and moulded by the Prince, are not those of a merely receptive intellect or of a neutral character. No more queenly sentiment has ever been expressed than in a letter to her uncle King Leopold, written in April, 1842. The Orleans family had been driven from the throne; as the Prince wrote shortly before, at a time when rumour exaggerated events in themselves sufficiently alarming, "European war is at our door, France is ablaze in every quarter. . . . The Republic is declared, the army ordered to the frontier, the incorporation of Belgium and the Rhenish provinces proclaimed." Seditious demagogues were about in the following week to hold a meeting which, as they hoped, would lead to a revolution; and "from the first," as the Queen wrote, referring to her recent confinement, "I heard all that passed, and my only thoughts and talk were politics. But I never was calmer and quieter or less nervous. Great events make me calm; it is only trifles that irritate my nerves." The courage which rises in the presence of danger, the presence of mind that is steadied and confirmed by doubt and anxiety, are qualities which become a throne.

In the department of political biographies there appeared, early in the year, "The Life of the Right Hon. Spencer Perceval," by his grandson, Spencer Walpole, belonging to the series of "rehabilitations" which have been coming out at intervals during the last thirty years. As Carlyle would persuade us that Frederick of Prussia was a model of justice and humanity, and Mr. Froude that Henry VIII. was a virtuous and self-denying Christian, so Mr. Walpole will have us think that Mr. Perceval was a very great man. All these have had their measure of success, if not so much as they desired, and Mr. Walpole in particular has done good service to the memory of his grandfather by clearing his character from more than one aspersion which has hitherto been allowed to rest upon it; and in fixing his rank as a statesman, we must never forget the times in which he lived and the men with whom he is forced into contrast. That he was not equal to the position of Prime Minister in dangerous and stormy times may be true enough. That he must suffer by comparison with Pitt, Fox, Lord Grenville, and Canning not his flatterers will deny. But it is too often taken for granted that such admissions as these are not the measure of his inferiority; and that, if we compare him with the Ministers who have governed this country from the death of Sir Robert Walpole to the death of Lord Palmerston, he will stand below the average. This may be fairly doubted. Mr. Perceval died, if not on the threshold of his career, before at least sufficient

time had been allowed to test his capacity for government, and without his having had the chance of living down the calumnies which all men in his position must expect to encounter. He was in some respects the Minister who bore the burden and heat of the day, while others survived to reap the harvest. All this should be remembered, and all lovers of fair play should thank Mr. Walpole for having brought it to our recollection.

Two politico-biographical works, by the late Lord Dalling, come into this year's notice of English literature: the third volume of his "Life of Lord Palmerston," and his "Historical Sketch of Sir Robert Peel."

The volume on Lord Palmerston is part of a work which bears only a fragmentary character. Mr. Evelyn Ashley, the editor, finding Lord Dalling's documents on the subject in considerable disorder, arranged them consecutively, and added a few of Lord Palmerston's letters, with a slight connecting thread of statement. But although the book is not, properly speaking, a biography of Lord Palmerston, it possesses considerable value. The detailed part of the story relating entirely to Spanish politics is related by a confidential and zealous agent, who at the same time admires his principal and severely criticises his instructions. Lord Dalling, more or less unconsciously, wrote a fragment of autobiography in the form of a Life of Lord Palmerston. He seems to have known but little of any of Lord Palmerston's transactions with which he was not personally connected; but the details of a single diplomatic correspondence probably illustrate the character of a statesman as fully as the most comprehensive summary of his general policy. The letters to Sir W. Temple which are published by Mr. Ashley are highly interesting. The popular estimate of Lord Palmerston's frank, cheerful, and manly character is fully confirmed by the specimens which are published of his private correspondence.

Lord Dalling's work on Sir Robert Peel is but slight and unsatisfactory. The author modestly waives the credit of having said "anything very new" about the character of Peel, but he indulges in the hope that he has comprised in this sketch "almost everything that has been said and is worth repeating." This is, in its way, a considerable pretension for a volume of less than 150 loosely printed pages, and we take leave to think that the author has not come near fulfilling his promise. Hardly any eminent man of modern times presented to the world a nature so curiously simple in its general features as Sir Robert Peel. But it was constantly thrown into new and complex situations, and the multitudinous side-lights that fell upon it are not to be easily gathered into the focus of a few summary chapters. We do not quarrel with the general conception of the Conservative statesman that Lord Dalling gives us, its leading strokes are accurate enough, its prevailing tone is true. But it wants the light living touches of varying colour, the subtle suggestions which fill up and round off a rigid outline. It is, of course, quite proper to delineate Peel's character as typically that of "the practical man;" but "practical men" have made their way in politics before and after him; they professed to deal with political questions according to the same tests, some of them failed and some of them succeeded, but none of them could for an instant be confounded in respect of mental and moral quality with the leader of the high Protestants and unflinching Protectionists, who carried the Emancipation Act and the Repeal of the Corn Laws.

Attached to the volume is a rather singular prefatory note, the writer of which observes that it may not be out of place here to remark "the infinite pains which Lord Dalling took in the preparation of these sketches. He offered

to the public no crude work, but one of which both conception and execution were the result of mature thought. Whole pages after being set up would be printed again and again, and he would spend a morning sometimes in giving more finish to the style of a few paragraphs. He resembled a great painter in being unwilling to part with his work, and carried it about with him from place to place that he might be able to obey the inspiration of the moment, and add to it those felicitous touches which give such value to his labours." The truth is that neither in matter nor in style is the essay before us one to warrant this encomium. The style is obscure, and occasionally bald, while as far as the substance is concerned, if Lord Dalling had no more to tell us about Sir Robert Peel than is contained between the two boards of this volume, his manuscript might well have been left with his "Memoir of Lord Melbourne," as "scarcely worthy to be added to his 'Historical Characters.'"

The "Speeches of Edward Lord Lytton, with a Prefatory Memoir by his Son," are a welcome instalment of the greater biographical monument which is believed to be in preparation. The present memoir has relation to the political side of Lord Lytton's character, its moral and intellectual features are only incidentally touched upon.

His activity was various and versatile, but his intellectual character was not in any sense many-sided. With the rare faculty of constructing a fictitious story Lord Lytton combined singular industry, which was stimulated by an impatient love of distinction. An accomplished but not a profound scholar, he attempted with little success to write erudite treatises, and he published several volumes of verse, although nature had denied him the qualities of a poet. In the less arduous art of oratory he succeeded better than in any of his numerous experiments as an amateur. If he had little of the passion of politics, he entered with intelligent sympathy into party contests, and his literary training furnished him with an abundant supply of illustrations and epigrammatic phrases. His own impulses were benevolent and generous, and on some questions, such as copyright and the duties on paper and on newspaper stamps, he was better informed and more strongly convinced than the mass of those whom he addressed. In dealing with subjects such as the malt-tax or the income-tax, which were less closely connected with his habits of thought, he adopted with creditable facility the conventional tone of the House of Commons and of his own party; yet it is impossible in reading his speeches on such topics not to feel that he is unconsciously assuming the imaginary character of a statesman in a novel. The few expressions of opinion in which the present Lord Lytton indulges himself may be safely accepted as well founded. He is evidently right in attributing a large part of his father's success in life to his resolute industry. It is still more interesting to learn that Lord Lytton was extremely sensitive to the thoughts and feelings of those around him. His son may possibly be mistaken in thinking that he cared little for praise bestowed on his intellectual ability. A score of prefaces and the entire series of his poems would lead to the belief that he cherished a not ignoble desire of literary fame. "Praise for any kind of moral goodness, the ready recognition of a generous motive or a lofty principle in his conduct, would almost overpower him; and I have frequently seen it bring tears into his eyes. Similarly he writhed under calumny, or any misinterpretation of his moral character. 'It is more than injustice,' he once exclaimed, 'it is ingratitude. Men calumniate me; I would lay down my life to serve them.'"

We have, in Lord Colchester's compilation of letters relating to "Lord

Ellenborough's Indian Administration," simply a record of that statesman's impressions while the events with which he was so intimately connected were occurring, or while public opinion with respect to them was most intense. We have no analysis of those impressions by the light which thirty years, beginning with fierce disputes and ending with a great calm, have thrown upon them. If, therefore, the friends of any of the distinguished men whose lot was associated with that of Lord Ellenborough in India see reason to complain of injustice to honoured memories, let it be remembered that this is not history, but merely material for history, and that what Lord Ellenborough wrote when his feelings were excited is chiefly valuable as vindication of his own character, and cannot be admitted, without rigorous tests, as evidence against those with whom he was associated.

The Countess of Minto has edited, in very agreeable style, the "Life and Letters of Sir Gilbert Elliott, first Earl of Minto," who was her great uncle. The Earl of Minto left a high name behind him, among Governor-Generals of India, as a careful, laborious, clear-sighted, just, benevolent, and courageous administrator. Without noise or pretension, he was a popular Governor-General; he was not brilliant, but of solid ability and judgment. These three volumes of his memoirs terminate when his great work of Indian administration began. He left England for India in December, 1806. After seven years of work as Governor-General, he reached England again in the summer of 1814, and hurrying from London to rejoin in Scotland his wife, from whom he had been all this while separated, he died on the road, at the first day's halting-place, in his sixty-fourth year. He had been made an earl before his return to England, and during seven years of high public labour had aggrandised his children's fortunes. Apart from his own character, the first Lord Minto's relations with so many of the most prominent personages in Europe in a series of most important transactions suffice to justify the publication of his correspondence even on so ample a scale as the work before us. He was a good letter-writer; he had a homely Scotch sensibleness which made him look at life and men in a plain real way; he does not mount on stilts, and he is not dazzled nor overwhelmed by any singularity of events, above all, he is not—what it is the besetting sin of political people to be—fussy. That is, he keeps his eye clearly set on the vital parts of the matter in hand, and is not agitated, as weaker men are, by trivialities. Lady Minto, the editor of the work, has been fortunate in her materials. Lord Minto was an excellent letter-writer, and had matters of great interest constantly to write about to his wife. Burke and Windham are valuable correspondents. Letters to Lady Elliott from her sister, Lady Malmesbury, are very pleasant contributions to the work. It is right to add that Lady Minto has made a skilful use of her materials, and done nothing to spoil their effect.

The "Journal of Henry Cockburn, being a Continuation of the Memorials of His Time," carries us back to a publication of eighteen years ago. Although the present volumes cannot compare with the preceding one in those elements of interest which depend on what is quaint, humorous, and antique, they abound in matter of great practical importance, and in facts and speculations affecting the most burning questions of the present day—the future of Political Parties, the effects of Parliamentary Reform, the Scotch Poor Law, the Scotch Church, Ecclesiastical Patronage, the Appellate Jurisdiction, the state of Education. Here is a solid and substantial bill of fare, at all events; but there is more general interest in the personal sketches which are scattered up and down

the volumes. Lord Cockburn was one of the few Whigs who never joined in the sneers at Scott's conversational abilities. "What astonishes me even more than Scott's genius is his sense," said he in reply to some priggish youngster who was repeating like a parrot the common talk of the "Reviewers." We here find a tribute to the author of "Waverley," of which, though balanced by adverse criticisms founded on a misconception of his character, is in itself all that his worshippers could ask.

"What extraordinary combination of genius with industry; of glory with modesty; of poetical powers, without any of the defects of the poetical temperament. . . . If literature can boast of a brighter example of professional authorship with good sense, good conduct, and good manners; of inventive fancy with regular labour, of simplicity with unchecked success and applause, and of genius being never considered as any excuse, or even as any temptation, for the slightest failure in the performance of any duty—I know not where it is."

The character of Brougham is the most elaborate piece of writing in the whole journal, and though the style is occasionally inelegant, it is on the whole a masterly composition. Lord Cockburn says —

"It is impossible to contemplate this astonishing person without the highest admiration and the deepest sorrow. His character is marked by such strong lines, and has been evolved in such unequivocal facts, that it is liable to no material doubt. Its peculiarity consists in the contrast which exists between the excellence of his intellectual and the defects of his moral nature."

And then he proceeds to work out this contrast in detail, with a knowledge of the subject and a power of expression which combine into a brilliant masterpiece. The chief charge which the Whigs have brought against Brougham is that he intrigued to supplant Lord Grey, being desirous to be Prime Minister himself. Grey's demeanour to him, as described by Lord Cockburn, certainly favours the supposition.

"I saw these two remarkable men meet at Oxenford one day before the festival was held, and nobody who witnessed the scene can ever forget it. . . . Brougham walked directly up to Grey, who was standing conversing, and made the gesture, though timidly, of one intending to shake hands. Lord Grey made no corresponding gesture, but drew himself up, made no sign of recognition, but in steady silence looked a calm repulse."

But Lord Brougham, in his own autobiography, has quoted a letter from Lord Grey, in which the latter expressly denies that he had ever suspected Lord Brougham of intriguing against himself.

In editing the "Life and Labours of Albany Fonblanque" (his uncle) Mr. Edward de Fonblanque has given an agreeable volume to the world. Albany Fonblanque's life was simple and unexciting, but his labours are identified with the political and literary history of his age. There was an individuality about his work which was very marked, and which made him known as a sort of personal acquaintance to many who were ignorant of his name. His pithy little articles in the *Examiner*, of which he was the editor, were eagerly looked for every week, and exercised considerable influence; and they deserve to be remembered for their literary merit as well as for the light which they throw on the politics of the period.

Of biographies not having reference to politics, we mention first the third and concluding volume of Mr. Forster's "Life of Charles Dickens." What kind of impressions does this record give us of the last twenty years of the great humourist's career? Apart from the domestic story, of which we can

only partially judge, as Mr. Forster is commendably reticent in his account of it, we look at the man of genius and the balance of his joys and sufferings as connected with the exercise of his great gifts, and the answer is that the impression is a melancholy one. We see a man of genius killing himself by inches in the effort to make money. The strong man breaks down by constantly straining his powers a little too far; the work which was once done spontaneously without a conscious effort has to be performed at high pressure, and with an ever-increasing sense of its painfulness, and, moreover, as Mr. Forster says himself, the task under which Dickens ultimately broke down was one which, if not below his dignity, was at least not the highest to which he might have devoted himself. Should a man of genius show himself in public for money? Should a great novelist condescend to be an actor? These are questions which we need not answer; there is much to be said on both sides; but at least it is painful to see a man whose powers were in their way unrivalled actually working himself to death in an employment which, to say the least of it, did not give scope for the worthiest employment of his faculties. And what was the cause of this restless, unceasing, unsatisfactory labour? The answer is only too plain; but we preface it by one distinct statement. "No man," says Mr. Forster, "could care essentially less for money" than Dickens. We fully and unreservedly accept the statement. We believe as fully as Mr. Forster that Dickens was as generous a man as could be named, and was entirely above any sordid desire for money-making; and yet he himself tells us in the plainest language that his primary motive for undertaking a task of this kind was the pecuniary reward. The pages of this book are painfully full of the subject. He wanted, says Mr. Forster, to make a provision for his sons. It is impossible to avoid the reflection that he had apparently ample means for providing for a large family by the ordinary exercise of his profession. He was beyond all comparison the most popular author who ever wrote English. He twice received, as Mr. Forster tells us, a thousand pounds for a story not half the length of one of the numbers of "Copperfield;" and Mr. Forster adds that there are no "other such instances in the history of literature." The success of his writings was beyond all precedent. The Christmas numbers of "All the Year Round" had a sale of 300,000. He was to receive 7,500*l.* for 25,000 copies of "Edwin Drood;" and to have half the profit of all sales beyond that number; whilst during his life the sales reached 50,000 copies. Scott in all his glory was not to be compared with Dickens in point of immediate popularity. Surely, one would think, a man in such a position might be independent enough of pecuniary cares to allow his mind due rest and employ it upon worthy tasks. The arguments, however, which induced Dickens to lecture in America in spite of Mr. Forster's dissuasion are carefully given in a paper drawn up on the occasion; and simply come to this, that he calculated upon making 15,500*l.* by eighty readings. On his return from America he continued his readings in England, and calculates that by both together he will have made 28,000*l.* in a year and a half.

The warning voice came to Dickens five years before his death. In February, 1865, he was attacked by a severe illness which Forster tells us, "put a broad mark between his past life and what remained to him of the future." From that time a lameness began in his left foot, which never afterwards wholly left him, attended by great suffering, and which baffled experienced physicians. To the last he persisted in believing that his illness was purely local; "but," says Forster, "that this was an error is now certain, and it is more than probable

that, if the nervous danger and disturbance it implied had been correctly appreciated at the time, its warning might have been of priceless value to Dickens." Unhappily, he never thought of husbanding his strength, except for the purpose of making fresh demands upon it, and he insisted on taking his ordinary exercise on the weak limb during heavy snowstorms. On his return from a rush which he made for relaxation into France, he was in the terrible railway accident at Staplehurst on June 9, a day destined, seven years afterwards, to be fatal to him; and no doubt the excitement of the catastrophe, he, followed as it was by nervous apprehensions as to what might be the consequences of the shock, was not calculated to improve his health. It was plain that he needed rest and repose, but neither would he grant himself on this side the grave. The doctors examined his heart, and found only "want of muscular power," together with "remarkable irritability" in that organ. Of course they said, as they always do say, that there was nothing "organic" the matter with it, and when they say that and a man still feels himself none the better for their advice, he had better go home at once and make his will; but that was not the view of Dickens. "Of course," he wrote to Forster, "I am not so foolish as to suppose that all my work can have been achieved without some penalty. . . but tonics have already brought me round, and so I have accepted an offer from Chappell's, of Bond Street, of 50*l.* a night for 30 nights to read in England, Ireland, Scotland, or Paris."

This was the way in which, neglecting the rest which the doctors had prescribed along with their tonics, he set about curing his "irritable heart." It is true that by the arrangement now made he was released from all the care and expense of management, but, at the same time, says Forster, it required "such rapid and repeated change of nights at distant places as kept him almost wholly in a railway carriage when not at the reading desk or in bed, thus adding enormously to the physical fatigue." Forster protested, but Dickens would not admit a shadow of misgiving, and the success everywhere went even far beyond that of his former readings. Yet the very letter which told Forster of his uninterrupted success informed him also that he had "a heavy cold upon him, and was very tired and depressed;" but, so far from leaving off, Dickens was tempted with an offer for 50 more nights, for which he meant to ask them 70*l.* a night. The final arrangement was that he was to deliver 42 readings at 60*l.* a night. This was in August, 1866. In September he had more warnings. "I think," he wrote to Forster in September, "there is some strange influence in the atmosphere. Twice last week I was seized in a most distressing manner, apparently in the heart, but, I am persuaded, only in the nervous system." At the same time he could not sleep, and found "a dozen oysters and a little champagne between the parts the best restorative." On January 15, 1867, he started on the second course, but so soon as the 21st he wrote from Liverpool: "The enthusiasm has been unbounded. On Friday night I quite astonished myself, but I was taken so faint afterwards that they laid me on a sofa in the hall for half an hour. I attribute it to my distressing inability to sleep at night, and to nothing worse." In 1870, between January 11 and March 15, he delivered his twelve Metropolitan readings, taking leave of his audience in the following words, alluding to his intention to devote himself for the future to writing alone:—"In but two short weeks from this time I hope that you may enter in your own homes on a new series of readings, at which my assistance will be indispensable; but from these garish lights I vanish now for evermore, with a heartfelt, grateful, respectful, affectionate farewell." But

every day of those readings and all his remaining days were marked by some symptoms which showed the disastrous effect of old excitement. His last public appearances were in April, at the Newsvendors' Dinner, and on the 30th of the same month, when he returned thanks for Literature at the Royal Academy Dinner. On May 7 he read to Forster the fifth number of "Edwin Drood," and had recently breakfasted with Mr. Gladstone. On the 17th he was to attend the Queen's Ball with his daughter, but his foot got worse and prevented him. On May 22 Forster and Dickens met for the last time at dinner. "The death of Mark Lemon, of which he had heard that day, led his thoughts to the crowd of friendly companions in Letters and Art who had so fallen from the ranks since we played Ben Jonson together that we were left almost alone. 'And none beyond his sixtieth year,' he said; 'very few even fifty.' 'It is no good to talk of it,' I suggested. 'We shall not think of it the less,' was his reply." On May 32 he was at Gadshill, and on June 9 the telegram reached Forster at Launceston, which told him that his dearest friend was no more. The few days at Gadshill had been given wholly to his novel, but his family observed in him an unusual appearance of fatigue. "He seemed very weary. On the 6th he was out with the dogs, in which he delighted, for the last time. On Tuesday, the 7th, he drove with his sister-in-law to Cobham Wood, dismissing the carriage there and walking home. On June 8 he passed all the day writing in the *châlet*, coming over for luncheon, and, much against his custom, returning to his work. In the last lines he wrote he imagines such a brilliant morning as had risen on that 8th of June shining on the old city of Rochester. He was late in leaving the *châlet*, wrote some letters, and sat down to dinner at 6; but it was hardly begun before Miss Hogarth saw with alarm a singular expression of trouble and pain on his face. "For an hour," he told her, "he had been very ill, but he wished dinner to go on." These were his last coherent words. Rising, he fell to the ground on his side. "On the ground" were his last words. His sons and daughter came to him, and Mr. Beard, but he was beyond all care or hope. At ten minutes past 6 P.M. on Thursday, June 9, he breathed his last, aged fifty-eight years and four months.

As a classic, "Boswell's Life" receives at length the honour of an exact reprint of the first edition. "The reader," as Mr. Fitzgerald, the editor, says in his preface, "will have the satisfaction of having before him the original text of Boswell's first edition, exactly as it was printed—with the old spelling, punctuation, paragraphs—and without any of the shapings and polishings which have been found necessary to give it the air of a modern work." But beyond giving us this exact reprint of the first edition, Mr. Fitzgerald has done little to earn our gratitude. His notes are careless. He is not accurate himself, and he does not detect inaccuracy in others. A man who would edit Boswell should be able to say with Boswell, "I have sometimes had to run half over London in order to fix a date correctly."

"Autobiography of A. B. Granville, M.D.," edited by his daughter. These volumes contain much that is amusing. Their second title is "Eighty-eight Years of the Life of a Physician." Dr Granville was an Italian by birth and parentage, but his maternal grandmother was an Englishwoman, and at the age of 23 he assumed her patronymic apparently with the view of furthering his admission into the British navy, the department in which his active life commenced. After some years of naval and political adventure, he established himself as a physician in Savile Row in 1817. He could by no means show such

a *livre d'or* of illustrious patients as was possessed by his contemporary, Sir Henry Holland, but he had seen professionally or otherwise many persons whose very names seem to belong so completely to a past age that it almost startles one to find that they were known in the flesh by a person who only died the year before last. Among them are the widow of Charles Edward, the widow of Philippe Egalité, who denounced to her young medical attendant the "outrageous immodesty" of M^{de}. de Genlis, Mrs. Siddons, Sir Joseph Banks, Volta, the Emperor Napoleon and several of his brothers. Cuvier, the Humboldts, Brande, and Heischel. He knew Madame de Stael, and gives an amusing account of Sheridan's presentation to her. He bemoaned with ex-King Joseph of Spain the foolish invasion of Strasburg by "ce vaumen," the late Emperor of the French.

Dr. Granville was a good musician and a clever actor. But his counsel to young persons who on entering life may be fêted and flattered for their possession of similar gifts is so judicious that we are tempted to quote the whole paragraph —

"It is my fixed and well considered opinion, that to a young man engaged in serious pursuits, the prodigious waste of hours of the night, and not unfrequently even of the day, which music is certain to entail, is perhaps its least evil, more particularly to one who has to practise a learned profession. But there are other and even more serious disadvantages to be deprecated under the circumstances, which will occur to the minds of most men of the world, dangerous alike to both soul and body. In the course of sixty years of inter-social life, I have not known a single individual remarkable for musical talents as an amateur in early life, monopolising all the invitations at evening parties, receiving all the petting and charming *accueils* of the fair sex, who proved good for anything else afterwards. On my first settling in London as a half-pay naval surgeon in the early part of this century, what most stood in my way was the fact that at the brilliant soirées of Lady Charleville in Piccadilly Terrace, I had often alternated the recitations of one of the authors of the 'Rejected Addresses' with my singing 'Yo que soy contrabandista, y a nadie tengo miedo,' accompanied by the guitar. That fashionable reputation stuck to me long enough to make me abjure my talents, for whenever the name of the 'Doctor' was mentioned or recommended, the icy remark invariably followed—'Oh, he who used to sing and play on the Spanish guitar, you mean.' Let no prudent father be anxious to make of his son a musical dilettante!"

Dr. Granville called Bournemouth and Kissingen into existence, and when the landlady of the hotel at Buxton complained to him of the desertion of the Derbyshire spring, he promised to "write up" that too, and he did so.

Under the not very significant title of "Threading my Way," Mr. Robert Dale Owen, the son of the well-known Socialist, has been publishing a series of autobiographical articles in the *Atlantic Monthly*. They are now collected in a volume which records Mr. Owen's recollections of the first twenty-six years of his life. In America Mr. Owen has made some political reputation; in England he is perhaps chiefly known as one of the most prominent retailers of the marvels of Spiritualism. In this volume, however, there is little reference either to the Spiritualism or to the politics—a fact which certainly does not diminish its interest. In the course of his early life Mr. Owen became acquainted with various distinguished people, and has a few characteristic anecdotes. He saw Lafayette shortly before the Revolution of 1830, and received from him some curious stories about Washington. He made acquaintance with

George Combe, with "L. E. L." and with other minor celebrities. Perhaps his most interesting passage is an account of a dinner with Bentham; and we will conclude by quoting the characteristic blessing with which the old philosopher dismissed him. "God bless you," said the venerable thinker—he was then nearly eighty—"if there be such a being, and, at all events, my young friend, take care of yourself."

Signor Campanella, the author of "My Life, and What I Learnt in It," informs us that he writes his autobiography in order to impress upon the world the lessons derived from his own experience. We should perhaps have a little difficulty in drawing out those lessons in a complete form; but their general nature is such as might be expected from an ardent Italian patriot of 1848. They have been proclaimed with abundant eloquence in a good many countries, and we do not know that Signor Campanella's personal experiences throw any new light upon the subject. If he differs from other members of the extreme Liberal party in Italy, it is perhaps in the circumstance that, having been a monk, his hatred of the priesthood is rather more prominent than usual.

Mr. Curwen's "History of Booksellers, the Old and the New," is unquestionably an amusing book. Its chapters treat respectively of the "Booksellers of the Olden Times"—which "olden times" extend from the invention of printing to Lackington, of Finsbury Pavement; of the "Longman Family," as patrons of classical and educational literature; of "Constable, Cadell, and Black," associated with the origin of the *Edinburgh Review*, the "Waverley Novels," and the "Encyclopædia Britannica;" of "John Murray," encourager of *belles lettres* and travels; of "William Blackwood" and his *Magazine*; of "Chambers, Knight, and Cassell," promoters of popular literature; of "Henry Colburn," famed for three-volume novels and light literature; of the religious "Rivingtons, Parkers, and James Nisbet;" of technical literature, represented legally and medically by "Butterworth and Churchill;" of "Moxon," and poetical literature; of "Kelly and Virtue," as distributors of numbers; of "Thomas Tegg," first in the "remainder trade", of "Thomas Nelson," providing our children's literature, of "Simpkin, Marshall and Co.," as collectors for the country; of "Charles Edward Mudie," the gigantic circulator, and "W. H. Smith and Son," purveyors of intellectual fare for railway travellers. A chapter on provincial booksellers concludes the series. These divisions, however, must not be too logically criticised. While, for instance, we find Scott, Byron, and Moore associated with the older firms, we can scarcely accept Mr. Moxon as the main representative of poetical literature. For practical purposes—that is, for the benefit of those who wish for some easy guide in their search after gossip—the arrangement is sufficiently correct.

We give an anecdote relative to Charles Rivington, the founder of a well-known firm which has now flourished for more than a hundred and fifty years, and is in fact the oldest of existing firms.

A poor vicar in a remote country diocese had preached a sermon so acceptable to his parishioners that they begged him to have it printed, and full of the honour conferred and the greater honours about to come, the clergyman at once started for London, as recommended, to Rivington, to whom he triumphantly related the object of his journey. Rivington agreed to his proposals, and asked how many copies he would like struck off. "Why, sir," replied the clergyman, "I have calculated there are in the kingdom ten thousand parishes, and that each parish will at least take one and others more, so that I think we may venture to print thirty-five or thirty-six thousand copies." The experienced

bookseller, we are told, pretended to act on this monstrous suggestion; but two months passed before the clergyman learned the result of his venture. Growing impatient, he asked Rivington to send in the account at once, though he generously added that he was in no hurry about the remittance which was of course his due. Much to his surprise, he received the following—

The Rev. Dr. * * *	To C Rivington, Dr.			
		£	s.	d.
To printing and paper, 35,000 copies of sermon		785	5	6
By sale of 17 copies of said sermon		1	5	6
		<hr/>		
Balance due to C. Rivington		£784	0	0

Shortly afterwards he received a letter, in which the good-natured bookseller confessed that he had merely been jesting with his reverend friend, having really printed no more than a hundred copies, of the expense of which he made a present to the author.

The "Literary Remains of the late Emanuel Deutsch; with a Brief Memoir," gives us the picture of one of the few men who in a short life have done very much and have done everything well, and whose greatest grief has been caused by their inability to do more. He had toiled with indomitable energy in that vast field of later Jewish literature which has exercised on the thought, the philosophy, and even on the legislation of Europe an influence not easily to be measured, but which remains for all but the scantiest minority of scholars an unknown, if not a repulsive, wilderness. In this wide region it had been his hope to work the rich mines of knowledge which even for the most diligent and clear-headed of workmen must be at first, and perhaps must long remain, an almost inextricable labyrinth. Mr. Deutsch exulted in his sojourn of twenty years "in the midst of that Parthenon called the British Museum," "the treasures of which were at his beck and call all days and all hours—Alexandria, Rome, Carthage, Jerusalem, Sidon, Tyre, Athens." The work which he crowded into these twenty years was prodigious, but the hundred and ninety essays and articles written for "Chambers's Encyclopædia," for the "Dictionary of the Bible," and for "Kitto's Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature," with the articles in the *Quarterly Review* on the "Talmud" and "Islam," were, as he hoped, merely preparatory to the great task of his life—a complete Treatise on the Talmud and other portions of ancient Jewish literature. His one great effort, in all his work, had been to realise the life of the men who left as their bequest to posterity the vast mass of Hebrew lore in the Talmud and other Commentaries on the Bible. For years he had toiled on in something like confidence that he should be able to do this. In the very prime of manhood this confidence deserted him, and he began to regard as a rash task the attempt to "resuscitate a time which, perhaps, after all, had better remain dead":—

"Who knows (he asks) perhaps, after all, I may be only and really in a dream, while I fancy I see golden towers and palaces gleaming in the dark blue depths, streets, and market-places crowded with a motley crew—Roman, Greek, Byzantine, Jewish, Indian, and the rest—hearing the vague wild hum of strange dead voices, and seeing, above all, the weird, strained look in their eyes which prays and implores unceasingly—Redeem us. . . . What will it avail anybody when I have proved to ocular demonstration that they had wisdom, and prowess, and honesty, and wit, and humour (which is more), and passions, and love in those buried days? For, after all, *this* is the end of all

investigation into history or art; they were even as we are. Why, therefore not be satisfied with this general result?"

The light around him and within him was, in fact, being overclouded by the darkest shadows. He was utterly oppressed by a sense of the fatality of his own self-sacrifice:—

"It is that (he says) I might be a thousand times more useful to my immediate friends by not giving myself up thus utterly to labours which, taken all in all, will amount to but very, very little, in the long run. I may prove and bring out a few details; I may teach a few—and these generally don't need to be taught this—that man is *not* bad from the beginning, and certainly not because he does not happen to dress and eat quite in the approved fashion. But, after all, what is the having done this compared to a real, good, active, useful life, when days mean days and nights mean nights; a life not a prey to all kinds of haunting things, and one which has a real—not a so-called ideal—aim and purpose?"

Possessed of a remarkably robust constitution, Mr. Deutsch found himself at an early age attacked by a disease of which neither he nor his friends suspected the nature, but which inflicted on him fearful agonies in its conflict with his great natural strength. He had not reached his fortieth year when this disease first began to show its effects. Up to that time he had enjoyed what seemed to him a robust health, which tempted him to disregard the ordinary precautions needed to preserve it. He had acquired the habit of almost incessant toil, and taught himself that he could scarcely afford time for dinner, certainly none for idleness.

"Reminiscences of Forty-three Years in India." By Lieut-General Sir George Lawrence.—A plain, honest narrative of really important events, delivered direct by an eye-witness, will have its value as long as the events themselves are canvassed. Just such a story is that before us, a careful perusal of which will, we venture to say, leave every reader impressed with respect for the teller, as well as better informed than he could have been before on certain most important episodes of the modern history of India. Sir George Lawrence, one of a distinguished brotherhood of Indian heroes, shared prominently in three of these episodes, and his part in them fills a work not a word of which is superfluous, the less eventful portions of his forty-three years' service being given in the barest outline, so as merely to connect these episodes properly. As military secretary to the ill-fated envoy at Cabul when the Afghans rose against us, and as that one of the captives after Macnaghten's murder who was most trusted by Akhbar Khan, and employed in his attempts at diplomacy with Pollock, he had peculiar opportunities of witnessing the events that followed the overthrow of our rule by the country we overran with ease two years before, when he had entered it with Keane's invading force. As our political agent at Peshawur during the Sikh war that led to the annexation of the Punjab, Lawrence a second time became a captive, owing to the treachery of those he had been appointed to watch, and was only released by the complete triumph of British arms over the troops that Runjeet Singh had left to incompetent successors at the battle of Goojerat. Finally, as Governor-General's agent in Rajpootana during the mutiny, he was instrumental in preserving that congeries of petty native states faithful to our side during the darkest hours our rule in India has ever known.

"Recollections of Sir George L'Estrange."—It is not wonderful that the "recollections" of a veteran should become obscure after the lapse of sixty years, and it is not likely that the author will ever be quoted as an authority for the history of the Peninsular War. Yet his picture of his own share in it is

interesting. He served in the campaign of 1813-14, in the 31st Regiment, having for his brigadier Sir John Byng, whose kind care for the young subaltern is well shown in the following story — L'Estrange showed Sir John Byng the bare skin of his foot, both shoe and stocking being worn through. Sir John said, "I think I have a pair of shoes that I will lend you," which he did, adding, "I shall not be ashamed to take them back when we meet our own baggage." This L'Estrange promised and performed, "though they were nearly by that time in the state of my old cast-off ones." He describes a night retreat in the Pyrenees. He saw a gentleman in a blue military frock-coat and a round hat, riding in the opposite direction to that of the march, and heard him say, "Right about, right about. It is — odd if ten thousand British cannot show their faces to thirty thousand Frenchmen." It was Picton. His division was in the rear, and they were falling back upon it. However, this gleam of hope did not last long, and the retreat was continued. Next morning the French army made a most determined attack on the allies. L'Estrange saw a battalion of Portuguese scattered and running like mad, and a large body of French menaced the position. He thought things were looking bad, but immediately afterwards he saw a regiment of redcoats go at the French column like bulldogs. The French stood their ground wonderfully, and for a moment it appeared doubtful what the issue would be; but just as the regiment got within a few paces of the column he saw the two colours go out in front of the line almost up to the French bayonets, the battalion followed, and drove the French before it. This regiment was the 21st Fusiliers. One of the ensigns who carried its colours was Francis Russell, whose fag L'Estrange had been at school. "Hurrah for Westminster!" said he. The French attack failed and they retreated, and the British having been reinforced took again their old position. The battle of Toulouse was well seen by the author without his being called upon to take any active part in it. The Spaniards, who commenced the attack, were unable to make any impression on the French lines, and were in fact driven back, and it was not until Lord Wellington sent a considerable number of redcoats to the front that the tide of battle turned. For a long time L'Estrange was in despair of the result, the fire sometimes retiring filled him with dismay, and the advancing fire was slow and apparently indecisive. The interest of these "recollections" ceases with the taking of Toulouse.

Turning to the department of history, we have to note that great attention has been drawn to the concluding volumes, the second and third, of Mr. Froude's *History of the "English in Ireland,"* of which the first volume appeared last year. The period which is now surveyed begins with Lord Townsend's administration, and ends with the Union. Mr. Froude writes with his usual vigour and picturesqueness of style; but we venture to think the praises he has received from most critics on this score are a little overwrought. There is a monotony in his terseness, a vagueness in his declamation. He does not marshal his facts or proportion his subject in general with sufficient judgment. He is not clear and consecutive in his notice of the personages which appear on the scene. Hence, the narrative, though at first view brilliant and facile, is not so easy of digestion as it would appear to be. Mr. Froude's diagnosis of the Irish case is somewhat as follows.—The Irish, to begin with, were a collection of semi-savage tribes, living, as such tribes do, in a state of constant internecine war, which kept their numbers at a low level, and effectually prevented the growth among them of any sort of improvement. In this state of things the island was invaded by the English, the scheme of the invasion

being that the successful invaders should become the aristocracy of the country, and this scheme, as Mr. Froude observes, would not have been a bad one if it had been carried out, and if the new aristocracy had done their duty by civilising the people over whom they bore rule. Unhappily they did no such thing, but fell into the habits of the conquered race, and became leaders in their barbarism. Ireland thus continued pretty nearly in its original condition, except as to the small district included in the Pale, which was rather more civilised, down to the time of the Reformation. Through the reign of Elizabeth, the Government oscillated between treating the native Irish as savages to be exterminated, and governing them by the process of making alliances with the strongest chiefs and supporting them against the rest. This went on, with the results which might have been expected, to the time of James I., who tried the plan of colonising the country with English and Scotch settlers. This plan produced great and durable results, but it inflicted terrible sufferings on both parties. Most unhappily, it was so timed that the distinction between the race of the colonists and the race of the natives came to coincide with the distinction between the Protestant and Catholic religions, and, as if that was not enough, the Protestants were divided among themselves into Episcopalians and Presbyterians. Ireland thus became in the course of the seventeenth century a battle-field for three sects and two races. When the Protestants were united ever so imperfectly, and backed by the power of Great Britain ever so fitfully, the Catholics were helpless before them; but whenever the two Protestant sections were divided, and one of them called in the Catholics against the other, the result was that the Catholics rose against both, and the country was the scene of massacre and civil war in their most horrible shapes. These phenomena repeated themselves, in slightly different shapes and at various intervals, from the early part of the seventeenth century down to the Union, and the condition of affairs with which we are familiar and for which we have to provide is the direct result of them, and cannot be understood except by reference to them. Mr. Froude has an inveterate repugnance to the faith and practice of the Roman Catholic Church as exemplified in Irish politics, and he shows it. He has a supreme contempt for the foibles of the Irish nature, which he parades almost gratuitously. But if Mr. Froude denounces the Catholic Celts in terms that their advocates may take some exception to, he is no less outspoken with regard to their English rulers. If he could not offer ample justification for his charges and his assertions, referring by way of confirmation to Parliamentary records and official correspondence, his volumes would be a series of atrocious libels on the representatives of the Protestant minority who systematically misgoverned their country; while if anything could extenuate the crimes of the Celts, or the corruption and time-serving of the patriots and Ministerialists who made up the Dublin Assembly, it would have been the trimming and vacillating policy of successive English Cabinets. Mr. Froude has not over-coloured the abominable atrocities perpetrated by the rebels and the members of the secret associations. He has not exaggerated the wrong-headed folly and selfish recklessness of the "patriots" who provoked the excesses which perpetually envenomed the relations of all parties, he may perhaps have rested lightly on the reprisals exercised by soldiers and Protestant volunteers. But whatever the crimes of the disaffected Irish, whatever the guilt of the agitators who traded on their disaffection, the English Ministers charged with governing the country must be condemned as accomplices before the acts.

One Irishman Mr. Froude vindicates throughout, and of no character of the century does he speak more warmly than the statesman whom he calls the "great Earl of Clare." Transplanted across the Channel, Fitzgibbon sank into comparative insignificance, yet through his long Irish career he proved himself the good genius of England, and it would have been well for successive Administrations had they walked consistently by his advice. No man understood his countrymen better, and far from falling into the fashion of the day—flattering their vanity, and pandering to their foibles—he never hesitated to let them know his mind. At the outset of his career, he spoke boldly against the Government when he differed from it, to the sacrifice of his hopes of professional advancement. Subsequently he took office, and he continued in place through the greater part of a long lifetime, but simply because he believed that the prosperity of Ireland was involved in the support of English ascendancy. He needed no small physical courage to challenge the pistols of a furious and bellicose Opposition, in the days when Judges used to "go on the ground," and when an English State Secretary was called out by a notorious fire-eater "in order to test the stuff he was made of." It needed no small moral courage to invite the obloquy of the people he lived among by giving the Dublin mob his frank opinion of their cowardice, and habitually speaking in favour of measures that were equally beneficial and unpalatable. Mr. Froude says:—

"Grattan has been beatified by tradition as the saviour of his country. In his own land his memory is adored. His glittering declamations are studied as models of oratory wherever the English language is spoken. Fitzgibbon is the object of a no less intense national execration. He was followed to his grave with curses, and dead cats were flung upon his coffin. If undaunted courage, if the power to recognise and the will to act upon unpalatable truths, if the steady preference of fact to falsehood, if a resolution to oppose at all hazards those wild illusions which had lain at all times at the root of Ireland's unhappiness be the constituents of greatness in an Irish statesman, Grattan and Fitzgibbon are likely hereafter to change places in the final estimate of history."

In the "Life and Death of John of Barneveld" Mr. Motley has sustained his high character as an historian. Though Mr. Motley's nationality is American, not English, we claim his book as one of the ornaments of our literature this year, being, as it is, published by Murray. Nothing can exceed the pains which the writer has bestowed on this most interesting political study. But it is not, strictly speaking, what the volumes profess themselves to be. Barneveld lived seventy-two years; and we have the record of the last ten of them only. The fact is, that in his "History of the United Netherlands" Mr. Motley had already dealt with the previous sixty-two years. The great Advocate was so bound up with everything that went on, not only in his own country, but one might almost say throughout Europe, for so many years, that it would be hard to write his Life apart from the general history. What Mr. Motley has now done is to write ten years of Netherlands history, to call it the "Life and Death of John of Barneveld," and therefore to tell the latest events of the life of Barneveld at greater length than he most likely would have done if the book had been lettered as the fifth and sixth volumes of the "History of the United Netherlands." Through a great part of the second volume the book does read like a Life of Barneveld. He who had always been an important figure now becomes the central figure; and, when we come to his

trial and death, he absorbs our whole interest. Indeed, to make this latter part dramatically complete, the Life of Barneveld is, so to speak, continued after his death in the personal fortunes of his friends and family, during several years of which Mr. Motley does not give us the public history.

The work of Professor Stubbs is the first "Constitutional History of England," at once minute and continuous, which has been undertaken since a wholly new light has been thrown upon matters of this kind by the researches of the great German writers, Waitz, the two Maurers, and others. In his view, the growth of English institutions is not a mere isolated thing, something confined within the bounds of our own island, something for English antiquaries or English lawyers to make guesses at, without getting beyond their own narrow range. In his view, it is part of the great story of the development of Teutonic institutions. The further relations between Teutonic institutions and the institutions of other Aryan races he was perhaps, in a work strictly historical, hardly called on to enter upon at any length. It shows the millenniums through which we seem to have lived in point of historical insight within a few generations, if we compare the fulness, the scientific precision, the wide comparative grasp, of the opening chapters of Mr. Stubbs's History with the childish talk of Blackstone or even with the meagreness of Hallam. It is no disrespect to those who doubtless did their best according to their light, to mark how very much more light has come among us within a very short time. Of course the time between Hallam and Stubbs is bridged over by two great writers, but the learning and genius of Sir Francis Palgrave were constantly warped by his strange and one-sided theories; and Mr. Kemble, who was the first to open to Englishmen the results of German scientific research, had no great gift of exposition; he deals with things in an unconnected kind of way, and, after all, his work covers only a few centuries at the beginning of our constitutional history. Mr. Stubbs, for the first time, gives us the unbroken history of our constitutional development, from the first notices of German institutions in "Cæsar" down to the Great Charter of John. The book, of which the first volume only is as yet published, is, in short, a masterpiece, it is the carrying out in minute detail of what the author had already traced out in the various sketches and summaries attached to the Select Charters. It is bumbling of all the knowledge on the subject scientifically treated and orderly arranged. Yet it cannot be denied that it is stiff reading; it reads more like a German than an English book.

"Year-Books of Edward I.," edited and translated by Alfred I. Horwood. (Rolls Series.)—The more we learn of the past the more we become conscious of the immense importance of properly understanding the popular side of history as contradistinguished from the kingly. Some eloquent modern writers appear to forget in the vivid and scenic delineations with which they have illuminated special pages of history, that they have left out the part played by the nation. History, to be national, must show the visible and invisible influences which have brought about the transition from one epoch to another, and effected a permanent increase of prosperity or introduced the elements of future decadence. From this point of view, among the most valuable of the numerous works published under the direction of the Master of the Rolls, are the four volumes we are now considering, for, probably, more than any of those recently issued, they bring into relief, on the one hand, the everyday life, the tone of thought, of Englishmen at the close of one of the greatest epochs of our history, and on the other, the coexistence of the comparatively rude institutions of Anglo-Saxon

times with the well-organised Government, centring in the King, founded by Henry II. and completed by Edward I.

"Sir Amias Poulet's Letter-Books."—These interesting letters, many of which have been hitherto unknown, throw much light on that part of the captivity of Mary Stuart which was passed under the rigorous keeping of Sir Amias Poulet. They are parts of three separate letter-books containing the clerk's copies of letters written by Poulet from Tutbury, Chartley, and Fotheringhay. The greater number of these letters are addressed to Walsingham, to Burghley, and to Davison, and relate to Poulet's important charge; but there are a few others, not of an official character. Amongst these we notice two letters to Sir John Perrot, Lord Deputy of Ireland, whom Poulet seems to have looked on as a man like-minded with himself, and, like himself too, burdened with a service of "great toil and little thanks."

Of the letters in the first, the Tutbury letter-book, there are six addressed to Burghley, and two to Walsingham, which are now published for the first time. The subjects of the correspondence are the Keeper's difficulties in supplying the wants and demands of the "Scottish people" out of the very niggardly allowances that were made to him. These difficulties were increased by Mary's demand to be removed to some other house while her own rooms at Tutbury were being repaired. Poulet, who found his own health better at Tutbury than it had been for some years before, was no way anxious to find another suitable house in the neighbourhood. There was some objection to every one that was thought of. Burton was too ruinous, Beaudesert too unfurnished, in another the brewhouse was too small. At last Chartley was fixed upon, and to Chartley, a "place environed," according to his own account, "with naughty and corrupt waters," Poulet was obliged unwillingly to remove. From this "unhealthy house of Chartley" the contents of the second book were written. Here we find four letters to Walsingham which are not to be found among the State Papers. By this time Poulet was anxious and uneasy about the affairs of his other charge, the "little Isle of Jersey." He found as much difficulty in getting supplies for the defence of the island as he had in getting sufficient provisions for his two households at Chartley. The third and last of the letter-books in this collection is by far the most interesting, not only from the events which happened during the time to which it relates, but because we find in it most of the letters that are now made known for the first time. It is to be regretted that none among them gives an account of the trial and death of the Queen, but we learn from them as much of the intrigues carried on by Poulet and Walsingham as it was prudent to trust to the copying clerk.

Considering the shortness of life and the small amount of attention which the ordinary English reader can afford to bestow on "Early Russian History" Mr. Ralston has, we think, done quite right in not discussing the adverse theories on the subject.

Early Russian history is all legend. So, it may be said, is the early history of every country. The legendary element, however, in Russian history is pre-eminently conspicuous. Indeed, so strong in Russia is the mythical spirit, and so weak the spirit of criticism, that even the story of the invasion of 1812 is adorned by legends of supernatural intervention. There is a certain consecrated gate at one of the entrances to the Kremlin through which Napoleon, finding it shut, wished to force a passage by means of artillery. A gun (as the story goes) was pointed against the holy portal and fired, with no other effect than that of bursting the piece and killing the gunner who had

applied the match. Napoleon, again, knowing the wealth of the Troitsa monastery, at some forty miles' distance from Moscow, sent out, it is said, a body of troops to seize it and confiscate its property. But Murat, from the tower of Ivan Velikoi in the Kremlin, took a preliminary glance at the road, and was horrified to find it blocked by masses of men in black dresses, bearing no resemblance to ordinary Russian soldiers, but looking very like Russian monks. They were, in fact, the very monks who had defended the Troitsa monastery just two centuries before (in 1612) against the Poles, and with them St. Sergius, who, upwards of two centuries earlier, had blessed Demetrius of the Don as he went forth to beat the Tartars, and to turn back for the first time on a large scale the tide of Oriental invasion. Light-minded persons who read even history for the sake of the "good things" it may chance to contain, together with graver students who appreciate the picturesqueness of history for the sake of the philosophy which frequently goes with it, will find themselves abundantly provided for in Mr. Ralston's little volume. Mr. Ralston, as all must be aware who have read his works on the songs, sayings, fables, and legends of the Russians, has a keen eye for the quaint, suggestive, often symbolical, points of popular tradition, such as constantly present themselves in the early history of Russia.

We have also to notice his "Russian Folk Tales" published this year, which will do more to show us what the Russian people really are in their internal life than twenty volumes of travellers' notes jotted down as they rush through that vast Empire in a railway train. In these *Shazhas*, which answer to the *Folkssagen* of the Germans, and the *Folke-Eventyr* of the Norwegians, and which are commonly rendered in English as "Popular Tales," the reader will find, according to Mr. Ralston, a genuine talent for narrative, which distinguishes the Russian peasant from some of his more distant cousins. We find also that the language in which they are told is simple and quaint, the humour natural and unobtrusive, and the descriptions full of dramatic positions which give full scope to that taste for acting so widely spread in Russia, and which affords an opportunity for the display of the reciter's "mimetic talent." As is well known, the popular tales of each race have a character of their own. The Italian are more stately, the French more polished, the Norwegian more homely and hearty, the Swedish more stilted. Of these Russian *Shazhas* we should say, after a perusal of this volume, that they are more wild and bloodthirsty and horrible. It is only among Slavonic races, says Mr. Ralston, "Slavonic by tongue as well as descent, that the genuine Vampire tales flourish most luxuriantly." If they are found among the Albanians and the modern Greeks, it is only because those races are in reality much more Slavonic than Greek. In the Russian Empire the belief in Vampires most prevails in White Russia, but the ghastly bloodsucker, the upir, whose name has become naturalised in so many lands under forms which resemble our "Vampire," disturbs the peasant mind in many other parts of the Empire. One tribe says that when a Vampire, who in his life, we are sorry to say, may have been a most respectable member of society, wakes from his sleep in the grave and feels a thirst for blood he begins to gnaw his hands and feet, and as he gnaws, one after another, first his relations and then his neighbours, sicken and die. When, like a bear, he has eaten up his own store of flesh he sometimes rises at midnight and kills cattle, or, worse still, climbs a belfry and sounds the bell. All who hear the ill-omened tones will soon die. But generally he sucks the blood of the sleepers in the approved old fashion: next morning they will be found dead

with a very small wound on the left side of the breast, exactly over the heart. The following is a very uncanny story of one of these fellows.—One night a peasant meets a man who leads him to a house in which he two sleepers—an old man and a youth. The stranger takes a pail, places it near the youth, and strikes him on the back. Immediately the back opens and forth flows rosy blood. The stranger fills the pail full and drinks it dry. Then he fills another pail with blood from the old man, slakes his brutal thirst, and says to the peasant, “It begins to grow light, let us go back to my dwelling.” which proved of course, to be an open grave.

Lovers of these bye-ways of historic illustration will find amusement and instruction also in R. H. Busk’s volume on the “Folk Lore of Rome.” The stories given in the volume fall under four classes. The first class, called *Favole*, answer almost exactly to the popular traditions of the Teutonic or Scandinavian world. The second class, entitled *Legendary Tales of Esempl*, are more strictly Italian, and embody the impressions left on the people by the lives of some among their most illustrious saints and teachers. The third, treating of ghost and treasure stories, exhibits some peculiar forms of Italian superstition; while the fourth, called *Ciarpe*, is represented by some tales in the collections of Grimm and Dasent, and by others which seem to be shared by Aryans and Turanians alike. But from the position of Italy, whether in the times of the Republic or the Empire, or under the new order of things which has grown up with Christianity, there are necessarily no specially difficult or mysterious questions connected with the mode of the acquisition or transmission of these tales. At no time has Rome been cut off from intercourse with Northern or Western Europe, and so long as the radical idea of a story is the same, we may explain almost any amount of variation in detail without carrying back the problem through an appalling series of generations.

And in the same connection of subject we may draw attention to Mrs. Whitcombe’s “Bygone Days in Devon and Cornwall.” There is something poetic and at least innocent in the Cornish superstitions about wells, such as those of Madron and Redruth, endowed with healing virtues; Lady Nant’s well in Little Cowan, and St. Roche’s, which can confer a gift of divination; or again in such wells as St. Keyne, to drink of which gives a husband or wife the whip-hand over his or her no longer “better half.” But “witchcraft,” and “ill-wishing,” and “the evil eye” are types of superstition calculated to work mischief and foster a spirit of revenge and jealousy, especially among benighted peasants, capable of believing that the best cure for rheumatism is “the water in which a thunderbolt has been boiled”, and the certain specific for the goitre “to go before sunrise to the grave of the last-buried young man, and apply the dew gathered by passing the hand thrice from the head to the foot of the grave, to the part affected” Devonshire folk are said to believe that a locked or bolted door, or a beam overhead, impedes the passage of a dying man’s spirit. Moribund Devonians also object to goose-feathers.

In his first volume on the “Conqueror and his Companions,” Mr. Planché as Somerset Herald, writes rather as a herald than as an historian, but he by no means shows the herald in his lowest form. He rises above many of the follies of his craft. He does draw the line somewhere, he does not put down anything that anybody chooses to tell him. He is not offended at the manifest fact that hereditary armorial bearings were not known in the times with which he has to do. Now this last is a sacrifice to truth which must need a great effort on the part of one who dates from the College of Arms, and Mr. Planché

is entitled to all honour for making it. To believe that the men who "came over with William the Conqueror" really bore no lions or dragons *gules* or *or* or anything else, or that a knight, if the fancy took him, might adorn his shield with a lion *or* in one battle and with a dragon *gules* in the next, must be a hard lesson indeed to those who are professionally bound to believe, not only that people have always borne lions and dragons, but that the arrangement of lions and dragons in this or that fantastic fashion really makes a science. Mr. Planché has looked at the Bayeux Tapestry too often to be persuaded that William really bore three lions or two leopards, or whatever the correct thing is, on his shield, when nothing can be clearer in the contemporary record than that he did not. But something of the herald still clings to him. He clearly thinks that anything that has been said by an elder herald has some authority in itself, whether any original sources are referred to or not. He has also notions about tradition as something entitled to respect even when unsupported by written testimony. He ought to know that what commonly passes for tradition in antiquarian matters almost always turns out to be the mere guess of some antiquary of the seventeenth or eighteenth century, and that what passes for tradition in matters of pedigree is almost always interested and barefaced invention.

"Mohammed and Mohammedanism," by R. Bosworth Smith, consists of four lectures delivered last winter at the Royal Institution in Albemarle Street, and is therefore necessarily somewhat popular, and, so to speak, "contemporary," in manner, yet without being either sensational or flimsy. Beginning with some remarks on the science of religion in general, and the relation of such a science to Christianity (a topic which had better have been left untouched than touched in six or seven pages only), Mr. Smith proceeds to sketch the progress made by Mohammedanism since the days of its first conquests, and to show how extensive its hold upon the world now is—a fact which few Englishmen realise. Speaking of Mohammed himself, as a singular exception to the rule that those who achieve anything great achieve it, or at least begin to do so, in their youth, Mr. Smith says: "Up to the age of forty there is nothing to show that any serious scruple had occurred to him individually as to the worship of idols, and in particular of the Black Stone of which his family were the hereditary guardians. The sacred month of Ramadhan, like other religious Arabs, he observed with punctilious devotion, and he would often retire to the caverns of Mount Hira for purposes of solitude, meditation, and prayer. He was melancholic in temperament, to begin with; he was also subject to epileptic fits, upon which Sprenger has laid great stress, and described so minutely, and which, whether under the name of the 'sacred disease' among the Greeks, or 'possession by the devil' among the Jews, have in most ages and countries been looked upon as something specially mysterious or supernatural." Of his person he says: "Mohammed was of middle height, and of a strongly-built frame; his head was large, and across his ample forehead, and above finely-arching eyebrows, ran a strongly-marked vein, which, when he was angry, would turn black and throb visibly. His eyes were coal black and piercing in their brightness; his hair curled slightly; and a long beard, which, like other Orientals, he would stroke when in deep thought, added to the general impressiveness of his appearance. His step was quick and firm, like that of one descending a hill. Between his shoulders was the famous mark, the size of a pigeon's egg, which his disciples persisted in believing to be the sign of his prophetic office; while the light which kindled in his eye, like that which

flashed from the precious stones in the breastplate of the High Priest, they called the light of prophecy. . . . The most noteworthy of his external characteristics was a sweet gravity and a quiet dignity which drew involuntary respect, and which was the best and often the only protection he enjoyed from insult. His ordinary dress was plain even to coarseness; yet he was fastidious in arranging it to the best advantage. He was fond of ablutions, and fonder still of perfumes, and he prided himself on the neatness of his hair and the pearly whiteness of his teeth."

Mr. Clements Markham, in his "General Sketch of the History of Persia," has compiled an excellent volume; but it is scarcely to be called history. Indeed we do not gather, either from the preface or the contents, that the author aspires to anything beyond the praise of giving a connected and accurate historical sketch of the various dynasties which have ruled over the Persian Empire, a geographical description of its cities and provinces, and a notice of the works of some of its chief poets. We are frankly told that Mr. Markham has depended on translations for his materials, and that he is not a Persian scholar. On the other hand, the execution of the work proves incontestably that the writer possesses some of the qualifications which we ought to expect in authors of the first rank, and without which no one ought even to attempt an historical narrative. He is conscientious and painstaking. His official training has taught him the art of analysing and condensing his materials. He knows how to discriminate between good and bad guides. And he has brought together, in some 550 pages, an immense amount of facts about Persia, arranged with method, and set off in a style which, if never eloquent or epigrammatic, is unpretentious, clear, and concise.

The "History of Greece," by Mr. George W. Cox, of which the first two volumes have been published this year, is a work of a very high order. It has all the characters which distinguish the work of a real scholar from the work of a compiler, a dabbler, or a pretender. Mr. Cox never trifles with his subject. From one end of these volumes to the other all is careful work and independent thought, the very faults of the book are all faults on the side of vigour, earnestness, and accuracy. Although, perhaps, the mere narrative is less vivid than we should have expected from the writer, yet Mr. Cox always writes clearly and powerfully, often eloquently. He has endeavoured, more fully than any of his predecessors, to connect the early civilisation of Greece with the general civilisation of the Aryan nations, and his purpose is to carry down his narrative to a time which is now only fourteen years old. But he has not brought out his purpose so clearly as he might have done, because he has mixed up the mission of writing the general history of the Greek nation with the mission of discussing the credibility of the details of some particular events as they have been handed down to us. The two objects are rather inconsistent with one another. The main course of the great drama is apt to be forgotten in the discussion of particular details.

Mr. Cox's remarks on Herodotus are very valuable and acute, even if not on all points convincing. He shows with unprecedented force how the epical unity of Herodotus's history is the off-spring of a religious conception of the course of human affairs, which is never at a loss for illustrations of the operation of the principles it involves. This leads him to an unconscious selection of causes of a peculiar kind for every description of results, and obscures the real relations between causes and results which it is the business of the historian properly so called—the scientific historian, if the expression be preferred—to

explain. So far it is impossible not to go along with Mr. Cox; but it will be observed that in individual instances he goes much further, and represents Herodotus not only as open—which he no doubt was—to the charm of supernatural causation, but as blind to the necessity of distinguishing between actual invention and fact. It will at least be conceded to Mr. Cox that Herodotus is almost as far removed in the spirit of his narrative from Thucydides as he is from modern historians. This extraordinary phenomenon in literary history is incontestable, but Mr. Cox has not as yet found an opportunity of accounting for it by a connected exposition of the causes which explain so signal a difference, and which, as he rightly recognises, are by no means to be sought only or mainly in the difference between the personal idiosyncrasies of the two men. Such an inquiry seems especially called for in a History which, like the present, attaches so paramount an importance to the criticism of its authorities. What, for instance, explains the relative significance attached to the responses of the Oracles in the one and in the other period? Mr. Cox has some acute remarks on the various kinds of oracular responses distinguishable among the Greeks, though he has probably over-estimated the proportion of those made after the event, but he has not as yet given a satisfactory account of the gradual diminution of the influence exercised by the Oracles in general.

“Ancient Troy.”—About a year ago the world was surprised by hearing that Herr Schliemann, a German, who has for years occupied himself with archaeological explorations in the Levant, had discovered the site of Homer’s Troy, that ancient city the existence of which many have doubted, while others who admitted that existence declared that, though Troy assuredly had been a real city, its site was lost beyond all possibility of identification. Herr Schliemann, however, belonged to neither of these schools of sceptics. Possessed with the poetry of Homer, to him a personality as real as the city of which he sang, the German archæologist not only settled that reality to his own satisfaction, but declared *à priori*, and before a spade was put into the ground, that New Troy was the site under which Old Troy would be found. On this site, therefore, refusing to be led astray by those who, following Strabo, asserted that New Troy was not built over the old city, and sought for the site now at the ancient Skepsis, now at Bunarbashi, now at Chirflak, and other villages and heights in the Troad, our enthusiast, who, fortunately, seems to have been backed by ample means, set to work on the plateau called Hisarlık, which rises out of the plain between two rivers at about three miles’ distance from the sea, and is itself crowned in one corner by an elevation rising about 100 feet. On this site for the last three years Herr Schliemann has spent about six months out of the twelve in indefatigable excavations, the expense of which may be estimated when we say that he spent in wages alone, when his operations were in full force, about 12*l.* a day. The result is that, in his own opinion, he has not only learnt but unlearnt much; but still, however much he may have modified his views as to the Troy of which Homer sang, he remains true to his first faith that beneath New Troy Old Troy lies buried, and that it has been his proud lot alone of moderns to discover and unearth those venerable ruins.

That Herr Schliemann has unearthed a very ancient town cannot be doubted; the question whether it be Troy is more difficult to answer, though we are inclined to the affirmative after reading all the evidence which this enthusiastic discoverer can produce. But then it must be remembered that of buried cities and their treasures it may be affirmed, as of the fish in the sea, that there are as many fine things still left in the earth as ever came out of it.

Who can tell if some one else may not find, in about the same locality, another city, with its pottery and its gold and silver and copper, which has plainly perished by a great conflagration? Who, then, shall decide which of the two is Troy, or whether any of them is entitled to the honour? Herr Schliemann says he shall continue to call his city "Troy" till some one finds a better name for it; but this seems to us rather a precarious tenure of a name when all the circumstances of the case are considered.

In his "Etruscan Researches," Mr. Isaac Taylor deals with one of the most mysterious and interesting of philological puzzles. Lord Crawford, in treating of the same subject, held that the old Etruscan language was nothing more nor less than a High Dutch dialect. Before him Dr. Donaldson had regarded it as a Low German idiom not improved by its contact with Umbrian; while Dr. Prichard had refused to allow that anything was tolerably well established with regard to it beyond its connection with the Indo-European, or, as it is now called, the Aryan, family of languages. Professor Corssen's work on the subject still remains a promise for the future. In the meanwhile Mr. Taylor's volume comes to shatter even the more cautious hypothesis of Dr. Prichard. Every one who studies his argument must feel that, even if Mr. Taylor's conclusions cannot in every instance be sustained, the conditions of the controversy have at the least been materially changed. If we take first the numerals, we may beyond all doubt say that the dialect which has *tessares*, *hex*, and *deka* belongs to the same family of languages with dialects which express the same numbers by *petores*, *quatuor*, *fidvor*, *four* and *fier*, by *ser*, *sir*, and *sechs*, by *dasan*, *decem*, *zehn*, and *ten*. Happily the discovery of a pair of dice about five-and-twenty years ago in a tomb near Toscanella furnishes the means of a comparison which up to that time, in spite of inscriptions containing the written names for higher numbers, was wholly wanting. These dice, instead of the usual dots or pips, displayed six monosyllabic words, the necessary conclusion being that these words denoted the numbers from one to six. The words were *mach*, *thu*, *huth*, *ki*, *zal*, and *sa*. A comparison of these numerals with those of Teutonic and Semitic dialects gave, in Mr. Taylor's opinion, no result at all; but he had no sooner passed the borders of Turanian speech than the darkness began to be dispelled. In seventeen of the Tartar dialects belonging to the Turkic family the word *bar-mach* denotes a "finger," while in Lesghi the finger-nail is *maach*, in Burjat *ko-moh-on*. In Tungusic dialects the word assumes the forms *umuk-kotschar* and *amuk-utshon*, and in these dialects the numeral one is denoted by *amukon*, *umukon*, and two or three similar forms. In Lapp and Wogul the word for six is *lot*, in Hungarian it is *hat*, "a form which closely approximates to the Etruscan *huth*."

On these and other philological and grammatical foundations Mr. Taylor rests the arguments which he carries through an examination of the society, the laws, and religion of the Etruscans to the conclusion that their dominant tribes belonged to that portion of the Ugric stock which is now represented by the tribes of the Kot Yenissei, who not many years ago called themselves Assan or Assena, a name "which may probably be regarded as identical with the name (R) asenna, which the Etruscan nation applied to themselves." The conquered clan, Mr. Taylor believes, belonged to the European or Finnic branch of the same stem; and thus in the far North-East, the object of the mysterious veneration of the Etruscan augurs, he finds the early home of this wonderful people, whose genius, as he holds, has given birth to all the glories of the art of Christian Italy.

In two military monographs we have before us examples of two entirely different methods of treating the same subject. It is desirable that a record should exist of the services of every regiment in the army, and that, if possible, that record should be compiled by some present or past member of the corps. But although nowadays almost everybody is ready to write a book, there is an infinite variety of ways of writing, and nothing is more rare than the talent which can hit the happy mean between the brief and barren summary and the heavy undigested mass of details. These remarks are suggested by a comparison between the historical record of the 35th Regiment and that of the Grenadier Guards, which have both been lately published. In our view, the first of these books is too short and the second too long. But at the same time we must admit that a book which is not a good history in itself may be valuable as material from which history may be written; and if means can be found to pay for a sumptuous publication, let the Guards profit by this example of their undeniable superiority in command of money over the Line.

The "Origin and History of the First or Grenadier Guards," however written, must be deeply interesting; nor is it any reproach to Lieut-General Sir F. W. Hamilton to say that he has applied himself with laborious industry to every accessible source of information. This regiment has almost the longest record of any in the service, only yielding, we believe, to the 1st Royals, which represent the Scottish Guard of the kings of France, and to the 3rd Buffs, which were originally raised for the service of the States-General of Holland; and it has necessarily shared in all the great military events of English history during the last two centuries. It fought at Steenkirk and Landen under King William III., at Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, under Marlborough, and at Fontenoy, Waterloo, and Inkermann. It numbers among its colonels Marlborough and Wellington. In the soldiers' battles, as they may equally be called, of Fontenoy and Inkermann, it bore a distinguished part, and on both occasions it helped to win from French generals the admission that British infantry had done what their own could not do.

The "Historical Memoir of the 35th Royal Sussex Regiment of Foot" is contained in one small, unpretending volume which contrasts strongly with the three bulky and handsome volumes which record the services of the Grenadier Guards. The editor pertinently asks why "Quebec" should not be seen on the colours of the regiments that fought there; and, indeed, he and the historians of other regiments may well complain that their great deeds have become, with the lapse of time and the accumulation of newer glories, more than half-forgotten things. Yet one memory is common to the 35th Regiment and to the Grenadier Guards, they both shared the defeat and captivity which an English force, commanded by the French Earl of Galway, incurred at Almanza at the hands of the English Duke of Berwick, commanding a Franco-Spanish army. It is strange that from the same family of Churchill should have sprung both Marlborough and one of the ablest leaders of the side opposed to him. An English officer who was among the many prisoners taken at Almanza told his captors, "If you will change generals, we will fight you over again." This may be compared with the story of a Bavarian telling the Crown Prince that if they had him for leader they could easily beat those rascally Prussians.

Colonel Chesney's "Essays in Modern Military Biography" form a collection of military criticism of a very high and valuable kind, comprehensive, acute, intelligent, and just. The style, though not brilliant or free from errors, is always simple, masculine, and plain, as becomes one whose office it is to u-e

the sword as well as the pen. The first two of these essays review some of the characteristics of that mighty host which from 1804 to 1813 was the terror of Continental Europe, and glance at the career of its great leader. The well-known *Souvenirs* of the late Duc de Fezensac, and the less popular Memoirs of General von Brandt, a German soldier of the first French Empire, form a good text for the author's comments, and these will be found to be of no little interest. Colonel Chesney, from temperament and associations, shows an evident preference for the peculiarities of the German soldiery compared with the French, and possibly underrated in some points the originality of Napoleon's genius, but on the whole he has well described the excellences and defects of the Grand Army and of the Napoleonic system of war. The next group of essays leads us far away from the theatres of Napoleon's glories and fall. In his account of "Cornwallis and the Indian Services," Colonel Chesney dwells briefly on the distinguished services of the eminent soldier and statesman of the name, and at more length on the great reforms he effected in our administration of India. Since the publication of his correspondence no doubt can remain that Lord Cornwallis was by no means a third-rate general, and that the crowning disaster of Yorktown ought not fairly to be laid to his charge. The reverses of our arms in America, it is now certain, were in the main caused by the deficiencies of a military system, then in a state of grievous decline, by the incompetence of Sir William Howe, and by dissensions between the British chiefs. The Irish administration of Lord Cornwallis reflects the very highest honour upon him, and it was mainly his work that the distracted country was not torn in pieces in 1798, and that the Union was happily brought about in a pause in the conflict of maddened factions. Colonel Chesney, however, evidently thinks that the title of Cornwallis to his country's gratitude rests chiefly upon his rule in India, and he has left us a very interesting sketch of the changes he made in the Indian services, and of the results which may be traced to them. The last four essays in this volume dwell at some length on the great war which convulsed America from 1861 to 1865. We think with Colonel Chesney that this momentous contest deserves more study than it has received from us, and teaches lessons of the very highest importance. The incidents of the blockade and its effects, which gradually sapped the resources of the South, possess deep interest for a Power like England; and many of the naval operations of the war—not to speak of the memorable duel which revealed the efficacy of the turret ironclad—should be laid to heart by our professional seamen. The war, too, showed how important may be to a belligerent the command not only of the sea, but of the internal water lines of a country; and from first to last it proves how immense is the advantage to a State which can shut out its antagonist from foreign trade and relations. Notwithstanding, also, all that we have seen in 1866 and 1870, it has left examples of strategic science which a sound critic knows how to value, and it has taught most useful tactical truths as to the defence of close and intricate districts which, if inapplicable in the instance of a struggle on the plains of Germany or France, should be carefully studied by English officers. Nor less clearly does it illustrate the mischievous results and enormous cost of want of preparation and defective services even against a badly organised foe; while, at the same time, it gives proof of the vast resources of the American Commonwealth when allowed time to develop its strength. These and other truths are lucidly set forth by Colonel Chesney in his able essays on the naval exploits of Fairagut and Porter, and on the military qualities of Grant and Lee.

The Ashantee War has been the occasion of several narratives. To mention a few, Mr. Stanley's "Coomassie and Magdala" may be read with sufficient interest while the memory of the expedition is fresh; and it is not often that newspaper correspondence claims a much longer life. The Ashantee expedition did not present those bewildering combinations and movements characteristic of war on a great scale which baffle the individual observer. On the other hand, it was rarely, if ever, possible to get any general view of what was going on. All that Mr. Stanley has to describe is a dense mass of African foliage with occasionally a line of men firing at indefinite puffs of smoke presumably proceeding from Ashantees. No such scene as that of the "thin red line," or of the fight in the grand mountain scenery of Abyssinia, offered materials for graphic writing. Of such chances as he had Mr. Stanley has made respectable use. The battle of Amoafu and the entry into Coomassie are described, not exactly in such a way that we can fancy ourselves to have been there, but still with a fair amount of vivacity. After all, one's first impression on reading almost all such stories is that the writer has omitted to answer precisely the questions which one would have wished to ask, but we do not think that Mr. Stanley makes more errors of this kind than were inevitable, and his book is a fair specimen of the class to which it belongs.

Captain Brackenbury's "Narrative" of the "Ashantee War" has just one little defect; it is not history. When generals are able to conduct campaigns without making any blunders, then staff officers will be able to write narratives without making partial statements and ingenious omissions. Nor, indeed, can we wish to see this class of writers too freely criticising their chiefs. In the first place, it would not be soldierlike, it is not permitted in the army to strike one's superior officer even with the truthfullest pen. In the second place, it would not be gentlemanly; the staff officer's memory is laden with private conversations, and he cannot describe any head-quarters transaction without laying open a confidence. It would be most unseemly if Captain Brackenbury were to dissect and demonstrate the errors of the campaign with that freedom which may be permitted in a special correspondent, whose first duty is to tell the whole truth, however unpalatable it may be, to the public, and whatever result it may bring to himself in unpopularity, misrepresentation, and the like. But not only is Captain Brackenbury forbidden by etiquette to criticise his old commander, but it can hardly be doubted that he strongly approved most of Sir Garnet's measures at the time they were taken, and warmly adopted them into his mind, so that when certain measures were afterwards attacked, he felt as much interest on their behalf and as much incapacity for accepting criticism as if he had suggested them himself. We therefore do not question our author's sincerity when he defends Sir G. Wolseley in the matters of transport, the railway, the non-destruction of the Bantoma, and so forth, but from the very nature of things his opinion cannot be received as impartial, and he certainly brings forward no new facts or arguments of importance in relation to these matters.

Then again we have the "March to Coomassie," by Mr. Henty, of the *Standard*; and "Through Fantee Land to Coomassie," by Mr. Boyle, of the *Daily Telegraph*. Mr. Henty went out in the "Ambriz," and witnessed all the events of the campaign. He also accompanied Mr. Stanley, who possessed a steam launch, in a trip to the Volta, where they saw something of Glover's expedition and of the eastern districts of the Gold Coast. Mr. Henty has compiled from his letters a well-connected narrative, which has no fault but

that of being commonplace. The battles are tamely described; there are no word-pictures; the every-day life at Cape Coast and the stirring incidents of the march through Ashantee are given forth in the same quiet humdrum style, like a man reciting for hours in one tone of voice. The book, however, contains practical suggestions, which are often of considerable value, and much hostile criticism, which derives additional force from the temperate language and reluctant manner in which it is expressed. Mr. Henty says: "We were successful, and by all means let us rejoice over it, but we were within an ace of not being successful, and we ought not to ignore this, but should examine how and why we so nearly failed, and take measures that our next and perhaps more serious campaign may succeed by the perfection of our organisation, and not as a matter of luck." Mr. Henty, who was once in the commissariat, and has had some practical experience in questions of transport and supply, then goes at length into the subject, and the last chapter of his work is worthy of attention from all those who are studying the department known as the Control.

Mr. Boyle does not criticise: he merely relates and describes, and professes to have transcribed his diary "even to its details," but it would be, perhaps, more correct to say that he has reprinted his letters in the *Daily Telegraph*. In spite of some errors of fact which might be pointed out, Mr. Boyle's narrative may be recommended as a trustworthy account of the campaign, and as presenting vivid and faithful pictures of the native life and character. Mr. Boyle was exceedingly active in the field; no man could have displayed more energy. The book has not so much literary merit as might have been expected from the author of "To the Cape for Diamonds" and "Camp Notes," but here and there we find landscape passages which are perfect gems of description. The book also contains some amusing anecdotes, one of which we shall give our readers. Dr. Reid was conversing with an old Kossu chief, and asked him now many wars he had fought in. No reply. Reid saw he was offended, and withdrew. Some hours after the old man came to him, leading a youth of twenty years old or so. "Sir," he said, "ask this boy how many wars he has fought; he will tell you. But don't ask a grey-headed man, because he doesn't know."

But of all records of mingled war and exploration, none is so conspicuous in the literature of the year as "Ismaila," the title given by Sir Samuel Baker to the narrative of his expedition in the basin of the Upper Nile. The book was published in two handsome volumes elaborately illustrated. It is not uninteresting as a record of travel. Sir Samuel Baker, as we all know, is a man of extraordinary strength and courage, and he can tell a story of adventure in a plain, straightforward style, without unnecessary circumlocution, and without any attempt at fine writing. His books are much more readable than the average descriptions of American travel. In his present book, however, the traveller is but a secondary character. The book should rather be compared to "Caesar's Commentaries" or the "Wellington Despatches." It is the account by the commander himself of a military expedition; and though Sir Samuel's enemies were savages, and the victories were necessarily of a simple kind, the fighting is sufficiently exciting; and one part of the story strongly recalls the march to Coomassie, with the exception that it deals with a retreat instead of an advance. And yet the book is perhaps less interesting as a military narrative than from the light which it throws upon the condition of a part of Central Africa which has long possessed a peculiar interest, and which is now being

gradually annexed to the civilised world. This work is said by its author to be a "Narrative of the Expedition to Central Africa for the Suppression of the Slave Trade," and when the expedition was commenced the public was certainly made to understand that the suppression of the slave trade was its primary object. But it is clear that the Khedive's chief purpose in sending Sir Samuel Baker with an army into Central Africa was the annexation of the Nile basin, for the purpose of increasing the revenues and authority of the Egyptian Government. In the firman which the new Pasha received from the Khedive, the suppression of the slave trade is merely mentioned as one of various results which might be expected from the conquest of the country.

"We, Ismail, Khedive of Egypt, considering the savage condition of the tribes which inhabit the Nile basin; considering that neither government nor laws nor security exists in those countries; considering that humanity enforces the suppression of the slave hunters who occupy those countries in great numbers; considering that the establishment of legitimate commerce throughout those countries will be a great stride towards future civilisation and will result in the opening to steam navigation of the great equatorial lakes of Central Africa, and in the establishment of a permanent Government, . . . we have decreed and now decree as follows:—

"An expedition is organised to subdue to our authority the countries situated to the south of Gondokoro; to suppress the slave trade; to introduce a system of regular commerce, to open to navigation the great lakes of the Equator; and to establish a chain of military stations and commercial dépôts distant at intervals of three days' march throughout Central Africa, accepting Gondokoro as the base of operations."

As regards this war, the natives have much to say for themselves. From the first they protested against annexation; yet they did not attack the Egyptians—they merely refused to sell their cattle and their corn. On the other hand, it can be alleged that no general sent to annex a country would withdraw his troops on account of verbal opposition, nor would any general allow his troops to starve in the midst of plenty. Sir Samuel Baker may have erred in accepting his commission; he may be blamed for having undertaken to conquer free and independent countries, but, once having undertaken the business, he acted with not more than the decision and severity necessary to ensure it from failure. Of the almost masculine qualities, combined with feminine care for the sick, great foresight, and a self-possession which never could be disconcerted, displayed by his wife, the volumes contain ample proof. The services of Lieutenant Baker were also very valuable. The hopes which good men entertain of civilising the natives of these wide-spread regions must be encouraged by the account of the patience, perseverance, fidelity, and courage of Baker's Soudanis. Perhaps there are no men in the world who attack the lion on foot with a lance save the tribes of whom Baker speaks; and courage of that sort—active and aggressive—must surely be backed by some good stuff. Even in the kingdom of Kabba Rega there was an excellent system of government, and the devotion of the people to the king and to his chiefs and their submission to authority were absolute. This expedition made no additions to our geographical knowledge, and the information which induced Sir S. Baker to enunciate "a theory" as to the lakes Tanganyika and Albert Nyanza has not been accepted, we believe, by geographers; but there are most interesting sketches of social life, manners, and customs scattered through these pages, and, though Sir S. Baker tells his readers he ought to confine his narrative to the object of the expedition, there

are numerous anecdotes of sporting adventures which would make a most pleasant little volume by themselves

It is a peaceful transition to "Symonds's Sketches in Italy and Greece." He who has never seen the places described by Mr. Symonds will get from these "Sketches" clearer and more vivid pictures of them than he had before. He who already knows them and the enjoyment of them, will recognise the accuracy with which they represent both broad effects and very minute details, and will find with pleasure that they show him new beauties which he had not himself observed before. Having described in a few words, very suggestive to those who know the scene, his arrival at Mentone on a February day of mist and rain, Mr. Symonds continues:—

"It was a Sunday morning when we woke and found that the rain had gone, the sun was shining brightly on the sea, and a clear north wind was blowing cloud and mist away. Out upon the hills we went, not caring much what path we took, for everything was beautiful, and hill and vale were full of garden walks. Through lemon-groves—pale, golden, tender trees—and olives, stretching their grey boughs against the lonely cottage tiles, we climbed until we reached the pines and heath above. Then I knew the meaning of Theocritus for the first time. We found a well, broad, deep, and clear, with green herbs growing at the bottom, a runlet flowing from it down the rocky steps, maiden hair, black adiantum, and blue violets hanging from the brink and mirrored in the water. This was just the well in 'Hylas' Theocritus has been badly treated. They call him a Court poet, dead to nature, artificial in his pictures. Yet I recognised this fountain by his verse, just as if he had showed me the very spot. Violets grow everywhere, of every shade from black to lilac. Their stalks are long, and the flowers 'nod' upon them, so that I see how the Greeks could make them into chaplets. . . . It is impossible to go wrong in these valleys. They are cultivated to the height of about five hundred feet above the sea, in terraces laboriously built up with walls, earthed and manured, and irrigated by means of tanks and aqueducts. Above this level, where the virgin soil has not been yet reclaimed, or where the winds of winter bring down freezing currents from the mountains through a gap or gully of the lower hills, a tangled growth of heaths, and arbutus, and pines, and rosemaries, and myrtles continues the vegetation, till it finally ends in bare grey rocks, or peaks some thousand feet in height. Far above all signs of cultivation, on these arid peaks you still may see villages and ruined castles, built centuries ago for a protection from the Moorish pirates. To these mountain fastnesses the people of the coast retreated when they descried the sails of their foes on the horizon. In Mentone, at the present day, there are old men who in their youth are said to have been taken captive by the Moors, and many Arabic words have found their way into the *patois* of the people."

"Telegraph and Travel." By Sir Frederic Goldsmid.—That portion of the through telegraph lines from Karachi to London which are worked by the Indian Government was commenced ten years ago under the direction of the late lamented Colonel Patrick Stewart, C.B., then superintendent of electric telegraphs in India, and completed in 1870 by Sir Frederic Goldsmid, who devotes the opening chapter of his work to a memoir of his gallant and indefatigable predecessor. The lines now consist of a submarine cable from Karachi to Fao, at the entrance of the Shattu'l-Arab, a distance of 1,200 miles, with intermediate stations at Gwadar, on the coast of Makran, and the islands of Henjam and Bushahr in the Persian Gulf. An alternate land line stretches

along the wild coast of Baluchistan and Makran from Karachi to Cape Jask, and then by a separate cable to Hienjam and Bushahr, at which latter place it is continued overland through Shiraz and Ispahan to Tehran. In round numbers, these distances traversed by cable and land lines measure respectively 1,650 miles, and when it is borne in mind that both land and sea had to be surveyed for the venture, and that of the former one-half consisted of an almost unknown region, and the other half of a country suspicious of foreign intrusion, these facts alone will serve to convey a general idea of the achievement.

The second part of this interesting volume recounts several of the journeys made by Sir Frederic Goldsmid on telegraphic business, and forms an itinerary of a most entertaining and novel description, from Baghdad (the "h" is, we have no doubt correct, but we prefer it without, for the sake of the hunchback and the barber of the old, old times, before Mr. Lane turned the "Arabian Nights," into a "lesson-book") he takes us, after a delightful stay, to Constantinople, viâ Mosul and Mardin. He tells us that Baghdad had not been Persian for more than two centuries, and that the "gardens" are overrated.

Some chapters on Persian, Russian, and Indian travel are also very interesting, if not so unfamiliar, and Sir Frederic Goldsmid's description of the naphtha wells at Baku, a Taitar town on the Absharan peninsula, in the Caspian Sea, is a noteworthy addition to our knowledge respecting those remote and barbarous shores. In common with all recent writers, Sir Frederic Goldsmid gives us a very mean notion of Teheran, Ispahan, and the realms in general of the Shah-in-Shah.

It shows how adventurous the spirit of the age has become, that several of the books of travel—and out-of-the-way travel too—published this year are by female explorers. "South by West, or, Winter in the Rocky Mountains and Sprung in Mexico," is edited by the Rev. Canon Kingsley; but, though no name is prefixed to the title-page of these travels, it will not be, unless we are much mistaken, very difficult to guess at the filial authorship. Canon Kingsley has edited the book and written the Preface; and there is to be traced throughout the pages a strong family likeness to that clear and vigorous style which we have all learnt to know and like so well. There is the same intense and unaffected appreciation of the beauties of Nature, and no slight share, too, of the same skill in their reproduction. Of all Mr. Kingsley's works, it is, perhaps, of his latest, "At Last," that the present volume will be most likely to remind its readers.

As a good specimen of the writer's skill we may take the following description of a cañon—the first she ever explored—in the neighbourhood of the Colorado Springs —

"The trail led up the bed of a little stream, then dry, which had sawn its way through walls of sandstone of every imaginable colour, from rich purple and crimson to salmon-colour and white. The rocks were worn into the most fantastic shapes—battlements, castles, and pillars, hundreds of feet high, sometimes almost closing in the path, then opening out on one side or the other into almost perpendicular hill-sides, covered with piñon, red and white cedar, and rocky mountain pine. . . . It was the wildest scene—the towering rocks, black pines, and white snow; we looked such impertinent atoms, daring to venture into the heart of the mountains. I never heard such stillness before; it was quite oppressive; not a breath of wind, not a leaf stirring; no sound or sign of life save ourselves and a solitary hawk wheeling round against the streak of blue sky we could see from our prison walls."

Again, her first glimpse of Popocatepetl, as in a stage coach drawn by eight white horses she passed down through the valley of Mexico on a hot April afternoon :—

“The air was fragrant, like England in June, from damp grass and the roses which lined the ditches everywhere. Popocatepetl was in an ill-humour, and hid his head in clouds, so that we only saw the grand slope up towards the snow peak; but even that was enough to give one an awful feeling of unknown size and height, for the great blue ghost carried one’s eye up and up till it seemed to mingle with the very clouds themselves.’

Surely this is not unworthy of a namesake to him who wrote of the wonders of that land through which Amyas Leigh and the men of Devon sought for the Golden City ?

The author describes the various wonders of Mexico with due admiration, and Mexico is said to be the richest in natural resources of any country in the world. But unluckily her attention was distracted by more pressing considerations. Mexico was in its normal state during her journey, that is to say, revolutionary forces were moving about in various parts of the country, and the line between a rebel and a robber is there so finely drawn that it is practically impossible to distinguish between them. More than once the party was in considerable danger. Some ladies and children who passed the same route within a few days of them were stripped to the skin by robbers, and sent on in that condition to their destination. The daughters of one of the richest Mexican families were robbed within a mile or two of the capital whilst taking an evening drive. In another town they listened to the story of a gentleman who had been seized by brigands, sold at a trifling advance to two different bands, and who was finally discovered by his friends buried under the floor of a cave, gagged, and with his ears stopped by wax, and pretty nearly dead from his sufferings. And, finally, the author’s brother, who was travelling through the country, with a view to making a railway, had a very lively skirmish with robbers, from which he fortunately emerged victorious and un wounded.

Mrs. Guthrie, telling us how she journeyed “Through Russia from St. Petersburg to the Crimea,” is a lively, observant, well-informed, and generally agreeable travelling companion. We say “companion,” because she really seems to take us with her through the scenes she describes. She possesses a good share of animal spirits, is prepared to be pleased, likes novelty, and takes, as far as possible, a jocular view of inconveniences which cannot be avoided. Journeying through Russia in search of whatever may present itself, she is haunted neither by the shadow of the knout, nor by the ghost of Ivan the Terrible, nor by visions of suffering Poland, nor by dreams of distant ice-bound Siberia. There is much to be said on all these subjects; and hypochondriacs travelling in Russia seem to think of nothing else. That great country, however (we forget how many miles it is from north to south, and from east to west), has also its bright, picturesque, joyful side; and the traveller who, starting in good health and spirits, with a sound brain and a tolerably well-filled purse, could go from St. Petersburg to Astrakhan, and from Astrakhan to the Black Sea, and find everything—or indeed find anything—barren would deserve to be condemned for the future to stay at home in perpetuity.

After paying due attention to the sights of St. Petersburg, all of which have been sufficiently often described before, Mrs. Guthrie and her travelling companion were conveyed in one of the delightful carriages of the Nikolai Railway to Moscow, and then driven “to the Hôtel Billat, feeling *en route* in

mortal fear of being set down at the Hôtel Billet; which is all but next door." For Billat let us read Billot, and let us also inform Mrs Guthrie that she need not have been subjected to "mortal fear" by the idea of being set down at what is one of the most comfortable homes for English people in Russia. On her descriptions of Moscow we need not tarry longer than to quote, by way of illustration of her style, the following picture of the view from the hills near that city, to which every visitor is bound to wend his way.—

"Sunset is decidedly the favourable moment for the view from the Sparrow Hills, and now throw its departing glory upon perhaps the most picturesque city in the world, bathing it in a flood of rose-coloured and amber light. In the centre of all this, and as if conscious of keeping guard over the whole, towered the long grim walls of the Kremlin, a black line above which rose spectral towers. As we gazed, the soft breeze brought on its wings the distant harmony of many bells; while those of the Novo Devichi convent, nearer, deeper, stronger than the others, chimed at our feet. We drew a deep breath, and felt that we were rewarded for many a long day's journey, many an hour of sickness and fatigue. To our left the Moskva wandered away from its sheltering bank, and threaded its intricate course along a boundless waste of bog and moor. Here and there the curling smoke betrayed a village; but, built of unbarked wood, the rude cabins were not to be distinguished from the dark and dusty soil."

To many readers Mrs Guthrie's most interesting chapters will be those on Sebastopol and the Crimean battle-fields.

Mrs Ramsay, another lady traveller, is not without enthusiasm, and on fitting occasions expresses her feelings strongly, but, on the whole, "A Summer in Spain" is written in a subdued tone, and the details she dwells upon are more useful than romantic. Mrs Ramsay's Spanish experiences commenced at Burgos, which, notwithstanding its strange bleak loneliness, exceeded her expectations. Then came Valladolid, so rich in historical associations, so gloomy in its position. At Avila, where the travellers found an English landlord bearing the name of John Smith, she holds her breath in awe at the solemn beauty of the cathedral, and finds a charm in the town itself, which remains as it was in the middle ages. From thence, over, through, and under the Guadarrama range of mountains—for the train passes through forty-four tunnels—the travellers journeyed to Madrid. It was spring time, and the hill sides were covered with a carpet of wild flowers stretching on mile after mile, and so lovely was the May weather that, on coming in sight of the Escorial, even that gloomy building looked rather a cheerful place than otherwise. Gay and brilliant was the first impression of Madrid, and the writer, who took up her quarters at the Hôtel de Paris, in the famous Puerta del Sol, remarks that no traveller should be beguiled, under any pretext whatever, into establishing himself elsewhere. Everything delighted her in the capital except the climate, which, she remarks, is perhaps the deadliest in Europe. Society, if once the proper introductions are obtained, is very agreeable. There is no stiffness, and the kindest hospitality; moreover, there is a look of home in the houses of the upper classes in Madrid, which is very pleasant to English eyes.

At Toledo the traveller was charmed with the cathedral, as, indeed, she seems to be with Spanish cathedrals generally. "It is absolutely perfect," she exclaims, "outside and in." For Seville cathedral she displays even greater enthusiasm. "There is nothing like it, it cannot be compared with any other;" it is "the most majestic cathedral in the world." Some of the plea-

santest days of this "Summer in Spain" were spent at Grenada and in the Courts of the Alhambra. It is no small sign of ability when a traveller describes well what has been often described before, and this portion of the volume is written with a freshness and a warmth of admiration which is very attractive.

Religion in Spain, or rather the want of it, is a subject which attracts Mrs. Ramsay's attention. On this matter, as on politics, her words are few, but they appear to be well considered. She thinks that religion is in a much more degraded state than in Italy, and observes that it is chiefly manifested by intolerance. "Among the middle classes," she says, "the men appeared to me very frequently to have no belief in anything except in the everlasting perdition of all Protestants." This intolerance is combined with great indifference to life and to suffering, whether of human beings or of the lower animals; and this indifference explains in her judgment the otherwise incomprehensible barbarities of the Inquisition. "It was not that they enjoyed looking at torture, but it did not give them any pain to see it."

Then we have the gentle memoirs of a female home tourist, of the poetic *avatar* which now seems to us so far gone by;—a time when ladies seldom travelled more than Sabbath days' journeys,—in the "Recollections of a Tour made in Scotland, A.D. 1803," by Dorothy Wordsworth, edited by J. C. Sharp, LL.D. In the year 1803 Wordsworth, who had then been settled at Grasmere for some time, made a tour with his sister in Scotland. Miss Wordsworth kept a journal, some fragments of which were prefixed to the poems suggested to her brother during the tour. The descriptions, though very plain in expression, are made with something of a purpose. In some cases they are brief notes of scenery and impressions, which Wordsworth afterwards turned into poetry. But even where they have not actually been turned to account in this way, we can see the marks of the habitual practice. As a painter jots down rough memoranda in a sketch-book, which may give him hints for future composition, so Miss Wordsworth is always accumulating possible suggestions for her brother's work. The intention may not be consciously entertained at every moment, but the habit has been acquired with a view to such purposes. The result is to impress a peculiar character upon the journal. A quotation or two may best illustrate the character of these notes for poems. Here, for example, is a passage which suggested a well-known set of verses:—

"The sun had been set for some time, when, being within a quarter of a mile of the ferryman's hut, our path having led us close to the shore of the calm lake, we met two neatly-dressed women, without hats, who had probably been taking their Sunday evening's walk. One then said to us, in a friendly, soft tone of voice, 'What, you are stepping Westwards?' I cannot describe how affecting this simple expression was in that remote place, with the Western sky in front yet glowing with the departed sun."

And here is another evening scene, which has not been put into verse, though it dimly recalls a number of passages in Wordsworth's poetry which are almost identical in sentiment:—

"At that time of the evening when, by looking steadily, we could discover a few pale stars in the sky, we saw upon an eminence, the bound of our horizon, though very near to us, facing the bright yellow clouds of the West, a group of figures that made us feel how much we wanted in not being painters. Two herdsmen, with a dog beside them, were sitting on the hill, overlooking a herd of cattle scattered over a large meadow by the river-side. Their forms, looked at through the fading light, and backed by the bright West, were exceedingly

distinct, a beautiful picture in the quiet of a Sabbath evening, exciting thoughts and images of almost patriarchal simplicity and grace." In this way, therefore, Miss Wordsworth's journal is not only very excellent in itself, but is interesting as an illustration of her brother's poetry. As a rule, Miss Wordsworth inclines to assert the superiority of the English scenery over Scottish more frequently than we should have expected. She seems to have been more struck than a modern tourist would think right by a painful sense of the savage and barren character of the Scotch hills. Neither Wordsworth nor his sister took the misanthropic or Byronic view of scenery, they liked to see the smoke of a cottage chimney, or a flock of sheep, or a cluster of trees round a farmhouse in the foreground of their landscapes. Nor is it to be forgotten that Scotch travelling was then a very different thing from what it is now; and that the hardships to be endured were sufficient to be really trying to the health. Miss Wordsworth seems to have been a very good traveller; but Coleridge, who had rashly joined them, apparently had enough of roughing it after a visit to the Trossachs, and deserted his over-hardy companions.

Another department of literature has gained by the third volume of the so-called "Speaker's Commentary" on the Bible, consisting of notes by Canon Rawlinson on a portion of the Old Testament. Leaving questions the interest of which is mainly historical, we notice much to commend in this able critic's scattered notes on the character and work of the prophet Elisha. We regret that he did not combine in one dissertation his view of this prophet's life and mission. But if the notes on the chapters which relate his history are read consecutively, assuredly a very life-like picture of the prophet will be obtained. For example, the "double portion" of his master's spirit which Elisha prayed for, is well explained. Then there is a valuable hint, from the history of the Shunammite, that the prophet must have maintained regular services on Mount Carmel, "new moons and sabbaths," for the benefit of those who were still faithful in the northern kingdom. Again, we notice a sensible commentary on the "trivial character" of some of Elisha's miracles, which we may perhaps advantageously transcribe.—

"We are apt not to be satisfied unless there is clearly seen by us to be a 'dignus vindice nodus' in each case of miraculous interposition. But we really know very little as to the laws which govern the exercise of miraculous powers, where such powers have been committed by God to a mere mortal. It is possible that they may sometimes, like natural gifts, be so much under their possessor's control that he can exercise them or not exercise them at pleasure. And it may depend on his discretion whether they are exercised in important cases or in trivial cases also. Elisha had evidently great kindness of heart. He could not see a grief without wishing to remedy it. And it seems as if he had sometimes used his miraculous power in pure good nature, when no natural way of remedying an evil presented itself."

The value of Dr. Farrar's "Life of Christ" will consist in the connected view it presents of the tragedy of the Gospels, and the facility it will afford to all classes, learned or unlearned, of acquainting themselves readily with the main features of any scene to which they may turn in the history. They will find each occurrence described in its actual or probable continuity, and all the details necessary for understanding it presented with completeness and with grace of narration. We cannot forget, as we peruse the book, that Dr. Farrar is a great preacher; and in point of fact many chapters might be regarded as descriptive sermons of a high order of merit. Indeed, if a man re-writes so

profound a history at all, he may well find it hard to maintain the mean between too much and too little illustration. The words he is explaining have exercised the conscience and the intellect of the most thoughtful writers for fifteen centuries, and their significance is felt to be still beyond our grasp. But after all that can be said about them, after perusing commentaries as eloquent as Dr. Farrar's, the mind falls back on the words themselves in all their simplicity, and is apt to recoil from any attempt to clothe the perfection of their outlines in an adventitious dress. Moreover, a good deal is lost, whatever compensating advantage may be gained, by a rearrangement of the narrative. Each Gospel tells the story from its own point of view, and each observes an order which, though not chronological, is none the less real. It is hardly possible, in fact, with the memory of the original in one's mind, to do complete justice to an effort, however admirable, to represent them in another form. It is more than enough if a writer enables us to return to the original with quickened apprehensions and a clearer insight, and this service Dr. Farrar will render to an immense circle of readers.

"Supernatural Religion" is the title of a very scholarly work, taking the rationalistic side of the Christian argument. The authorship has not been proclaimed, but it is evidently the work of one profoundly versed in historical and biblical learning, and capable of stating his argument with great though, as some able theologians have come forward to show, not with unanswerable force. Professor Lightfoot has undertaken a detached confutation of some leading positions of the work in the pages of the *Contemporary Review*.

The literature of Science has not been slack; and in some instances not less than daring. Mr. Lumisden Strange has followed up sundry little tracts upon biblical difficulties with a couple of essays on the "Development of Creation on the Earth," in one of which he demolishes in forty pages the whole Darwinian theory; and in the other builds up, within fifty pages more, a new theory of the antiquity of the earth and its human inhabitants. A series of extracts from well-known manuals and treatises of more or less value are woven together, with but a slender thread of the compiler's own spinning, into a fair enough summary of what may be considered the generally recognised processes through which the crust of the earth has passed, to its present condition, and been peopled by its existing flora and fauna. But the writer seems impatient of the caution which tends to restrain most original thinkers and observers within the limits of experience or verification by fact, and is prepared to advance nearer to the primary source or fountain-head of life on the globe. The multitudinous and often conflicting results of observation in the lower sphere of life, amongst the infusoria in particular, satisfy him of the existence of a cause or power of coming into being, independent of and anterior to parentage. The experiments of Dr. Bastian and others seem to him conclusively to forbid the idea of germ germination, and to make it clear that alterations wrought upon the material components of organised bodies by influences affecting them from without, and not an ever-varying and never-failing supply of germs, give rise to the several forms of simple life and their changes, in which the animal and vegetable blend indistinguishably together. Though professing to discard, with Dr. Bastian himself, the term "spontaneous generation" as incorrect—the ultimate spring or source of life, or any principle of true spontaneity in matter, being beyond attainment, or even mental conception—Mr. Strange unequivocally proclaims himself of that school which holds to the evolution of living out of lifeless constituents. In the crowning argument

of his book Mr. Strange carries us beyond the finite range of time and sense into the eternal fitness of things. A kind of cosmical equity takes the place of physical law. "The sun being the great supporter and regenerator of the terrestrial system, it is a fitness of arrangement which may present every portion of the globe to receive in turn his genial influences." Things are most unfaithfully managed now. "One place is habitually buried under ice and another scorching up in unbearable drought." Turn and turn about is the rule in the amended cosmogony which Mr. Strange has to reveal. All parts of this earth have been, or are to be, in turn Arctic, Temperate, and Tropical. Mr. Strange starts with a great impatience of what he calls "scenic representations" and "spasmodic efforts" in the old-fashioned notions of creation. He must pardon us if we show ourselves a little impatient of the tremendous drama which he calls upon us to admit and to admire in their stead.

Mr. Darwin issues a new edition of his work on "Coral Reefs." Seldom has a single stride of greater importance been taken in terrestrial physics than that which was marked by the publication of Mr. Darwin's work on coral reefs thirty years ago. A whole generation of geologists has since grown up with the advantage of entering upon their studies with clear and settled ideas upon a group or range of phenomena largely underlying any comprehensive view of the formation of the existing earth-crust. It was not enough to have learnt over how wide an area of the globe the present aspect of the surface is due to the action of minute submarine organisms, or to how vast a depth or thickness the growths of these patient workers had accumulated during untold ages, if science was still unprepared with any adequate or well-grounded theory to explain the mode in which these mighty structures were gradually piled up, and the causes which determined their distribution over various parts of the earth's surface. The bold and original generalisations of Mr. Darwin left little room for doubt in any reflecting mind that the theory of coral formation was thenceforth to take its place among the established certainties of science. Controversies might still arise over matters of detail, and much might be added by way of development, and even of correction, to the views laid down by this eminent naturalist. But for the main hypothesis, if that were to be called an hypothesis which with most men of science was accepted as an attested fact, nothing remained beyond wider expansion or more explicit enunciation. Several points of much interest have indeed been mooted in the intervening period by naturalists of note, which have given occasion to Mr. Darwin to go once more over the ground he explored with such good results a generation ago, criticising with his usual candour and close logic the reasonings of later writers, and fortifying with new arguments and a fresh array of facts the main positions taken up by him in his original treatise.

"Lockyer's Solar Physics."—In the discoveries of late years that specially refer to the sun, so important a part has been played by Mr. Lockyer that this book will doubtless be received with eagerness by the scientific public, who will expect to find it as comprehensive and authoritative as a treatise written by a thoroughly competent specialist on his favourite subject should be. The matter it contains is so valuable that few will regret having purchased it, but nevertheless it illustrates the defects that may be expected to exist in a work written upon a branch of science which is in a state of rapid development, by one of those who are prominently working at it. The discoveries more closely connected with the writer's name are treated at great length, while other parts of the subject receive only cursory treatment. Moreover, the author seldom

troubles himself to secure the clearest and most philosophical arrangement, begrudging, no doubt, the time that he would otherwise have to take from his favourite pursuit. Some two-thirds of the volume consist of reprints of articles and lectures diffuse in style and elementary in matter, pieced together with a few short chapters written in the hope of making the account a continuous one. The remainder of the book consists of reprints, with notes, of the original papers contributed by Mr. Lockyer (alone or in conjunction with others) to the Royal Society and the French Academy. These are thoroughly acceptable, and we trust that other specialists will follow Mr. Lockyer's example, even before their original papers are sufficient to fill a volume; for in no more effectual way can sound scientific knowledge be diffused than by rendering such papers accessible to the scientific public generally, instead of confining them to a chosen few.

"The Moon; considered as a Planet, a World, and a Satellite," by James Nasmyth and James Carpenter.—The problem which forms the subject-matter of almost the whole of Messrs. Nasmyth and Carpenter's work is that of accounting for the peculiarities of the moon's surface. They barely touch on the other questions of interest relating to the moon. These peculiarities are fortunately of a very definite type; there is no doubt as to the nature of the phenomena, the causes of which they are seeking. The minor details are of course still beyond the reach of even telescopic vision, but the shapes of the vast mountain chains that stud the surface, and are its most striking feature, are as certainly known, and their dimensions have been as accurately measured, as the most fastidious could desire. These mountains lie but seldom in chains like terrestrial mountains; usually they lie round the edges of vast plateau-like depressions, ranging from three hundred miles in diameter downwards. The great majority of these depressions are less than fifty miles across, but, from a breadth of one hundred miles to one so small that it is scarcely visible, there is no important break in the continuous variation of their dimensions. And it is from this that the special difficulty of the problem is felt to arise, though we believe that in some future time it will be pointed to as the main source of its simplicity. That the smaller of these depressions are similar in nature and origin to terrestrial volcanic craters is allowed by every one, Mr. Proctor perhaps excluded, who would have us believe that they are all the marks of splashes made by the pelting of the large meteoric masses upon the surface of the moon when it was plastic—a suggestion which we would advise him to index under the title "*Facetiæ*" in his next edition, to save his scientific reputation from suffering at the hands of those who are too dull to recognise a joke. But all are not equally prepared to admit the possibility of a similar origin in the case of those of a larger size. Even omitting the largest of all, which are in some other respects exceptional, there are many of these craters that measure seventy miles across, and are surrounded by mountains of heights up to eighteen thousand feet. We should naturally expect volcanic disturbances on our satellite to be on a smaller scale than those upon our own planet, yet what volcanic phenomena have we that can compare in scale with these? Our craters would be insignificant objects upon the moon, scarcely worth mapping down on our lunar charts. And yet to adopt a different theory of the origin of the small and of the large craters is to refuse to acknowledge the almost infallible proof of likeness of origin which is given by unbroken continuity in the members of a series.

The substance of Faraday's lectures on the "Various Forces of Nature"

has long ere this been presented to a larger audience than the juvenile throng who hung upon his lips at the Royal Institution thirteen or fourteen years ago. By way of abstracts or epitomes, more or less full and accurate, the lectures found their way into print and were widely disseminated. The time that has since elapsed, so far from lessening their value or diminishing the desirableness of having them once more set forth in print, makes the present publication the more welcome and opportune, especially as we now have the advantage of seeing them in an authentic shape, taken down *literatim* from the author's mouth, and passed through the press under the care of a thoroughly qualified editor. The lightest utterances of this Chrysostom of scientific lectures were of pure gold, and even the sparkles of his eloquent exposition of nature—when, in his own unaffected language, he returned to his second childhood, and became again as it were young amongst the young—were something more than the transient entertainment of an afternoon hour. Simple as they are, and adapted to the capacity of any young person or even child of average intelligence, these lectures are pregnant with meaning to a degree which is not often seen in addresses to more advanced or critical audiences. There is indeed no truer test or proof of genius in a teacher than this power of combining simplicity with depth, carrying with him the minds and sympathies of the youngest and least mature among his listeners, without wearying auditors of advanced culture or no longer young. For those whose tastes or duties lie in the direction of oral teaching, these lectures may well serve as an example how best to reach the youthful understanding, and to prepare the food of the mind for the easy assimilation of babes. One main ingredient in the pleasure which these addresses originally gave is indeed to be enjoyed no more. His unrivalled dexterity and unflinching skill in experiments gave to Faraday's lectures a charm which no other teacher of science had possessed since Davy.

Professor Jevons's "Principles of Science" is a comprehensive treatise containing original speculations on all, or almost all, of the capital problems involved in the theory of knowing. His chapter on the "Character of the Experimentalist" is not the least interesting in the book. Buffon said that "genius is patience," and patience, says Professor Jevons, is one of its most constant and requisite components. But no one should suppose that patient labour alone will invariably lead to those conspicuous results which have made the names of the great discoverers famous. A Newton may modestly and sincerely attribute his success to industry and patient thought, for true genius is unconscious; but there must be present also powers of intellect beyond what are commonly possessed by men. Fertility of imagination and abundance of guesses are among the qualities requisite for discovery. The errors of a great mind far exceed in number those of a less vigorous one. Kepler and Faraday are here cited as having recorded their erroneous, as well as their successful, speculations. Faraday's mental history is notable as showing that he faced a long series of negative experiments without being daunted or discouraged. During forty years the conviction that some relation existed between magnetism and light floated before him, and, notwithstanding repeated failures, he never relinquished his search after this unfound relation. It was at last revealed to him in an accidental experiment. Faraday exemplifies active powers of imagination, unbounded license of theorising, and diligence in experimental verification.

Professor Jevons, while holding that the theory of evolution is a highly probable theory, cannot for a moment admit that it will alter our theological views. Its results, like the results of all science, must be limited to affirmation.

We cannot disprove the possibility of divine interference with the course of nature. Such interference might arise in two ways. It might consist in the disclosure of the existence of some agent or spring of energy previously unknown, but which effects a given purpose at a given moment. Or the same power which created material nature might create additions to it, or annihilate portions which do exist. Granting that the hypothesis that there is a Creator who is at once all-powerful and benevolent is surrounded with difficulties verging closely upon logical contradiction, we are equally exposed to inexplicable contradiction in other directions of thought. Continuous quantity, e.g., leads us into difficulties. Subdivide as we will, we never reach the absolute as defined in geometry. But if an infinite series of infinitely small quantities is thus involved in all our conceptions of magnitudes, all our reasonings about the universe, its component parts, and what is possible in it, seem to be overturned.

We quote Mr. Jevons's concluding sentence in his own words.—

"Among the most unquestionable rules of scientific method is the law that whatever phenomenon is, is. We must ignore no existence whatever. We may variously explain its meaning and origin, but if a phenomenon does exist, it demands some kind of explanation. If, then, there is to be a competition for scientific recognition, the world without us must yield to the undoubted existence of the spirit within. Our own hopes and wishes and determinations are the most undoubted phenomena within the sphere of consciousness. If men do act, feel, and live as if they were not merely the brief product of a casual conjunction of atoms, but the instruments of a far-reaching purpose, are we to record all other phenomena and pass over these? We investigate the instincts of the ant, and the bee, and the beaver, and discover that they are led by an inscrutable agency to work towards a distant purpose. Let us be faithful to our scientific method, and investigate also those instincts of the human mind by which man is led to work as if the approval of a higher being were the aim of life."—Vol. II. p. 470.

"Some Leading Principles of Political Economy newly expounded."—Mr. Cairnes in his present work aims at restating and modifying some of the doctrines which have hitherto passed muster as established principles. He brings to the task a remarkable power of sustained and accurate thought upon topics which are apt to bewilder an ordinary brain; and a capacity for lucid expression which is hardly less rare and admirable. Mr. Cairnes does not, like some recent writers, countenance any economical heresies. On the most important point discussed in the present volume, he rather endeavours to re-establish the orthodox doctrine which had suffered from the lapse into heterodoxy of one of its most distinguished expounders. Mr. Cairnes has consistently defended the claims of Political Economy to be considered as a science. Mr. Thornton, partly followed by Mr. Mill, proposed a change which, from this point of view, would be little less revolutionary than a proposal to give up the truth of the laws of motion in dynamical treatises. If Mr. Thornton's criticisms were well founded, the treatises of Ricardo and of Mr. Mill himself would be fundamentally erroneous. And, therefore, to accept those criticisms would be to admit that the science still remained to be founded, if indeed a science were possible. Mr. Cairnes's criticisms of the established dogmas is of a different nature. He holds that oversights have been made and disturbing forces neglected; and that by making a fuller statement, the valuable truths already discovered may be preserved, and theory be made to accommodate itself more accurately to facts. His present work is divided into three parts, dealing respectively with the theories of value,

of labour and capital, and of international value. The last chapter contains an admirable investigation of the general doctrine of international trade, illustrated by some very instructive remarks upon the recent industrial development of the United States. We would fain hope that some of the Protectionists of that country would read and digest Mr. Cairnes's criticism; but we much fear that they require to be educated before they can appreciate his arguments, and to be rendered less selfish before they would admit that the arguments, however sound in themselves, should lead them to prefer national welfare to personal profit.

Mr. Herbert Spencer has now gathered into a third volume of "Essays: Scientific, Political and Speculative," a number of occasional pieces, ranging over the last ten years in date, and dealing with a considerable variety of topics. We do not think this volume will be found equal to its predecessors in general importance and interest. One of the best Essays is that on the "Origin of Animal Worship," where Mr. Spencer carries pre-historic speculation a step further back than had previously been done. It was already established that primitive animal-worship is not indiscriminate, but that particular tribes worship particular animals from whom they generally believe themselves to be descended. Mr. Spencer considers this to be a corruption of an original worship of real human ancestors, who were nicknamed after the particular animal. As savage dialects are hardly capable of distinguishing metaphor from reality, the metaphorical meaning of the name would soon be forgotten, and the animal itself become the object of worship and the reputed ancestor of the tribe. The original worship of ancestors is itself ascribed to the belief in a double or other self, which is capable of quitting the man during life (as in sleep or trances), and which lives and must be propitiated after the man's death. This belief is produced by the co-operation of various causes, of which dreams are set down as the chief. We may remark that the importance attached to the evidence of dreams even in comparatively modern times is curiously shown by Lucretius, who treats it so as to show that he thought it one of the most formidable difficulties he had to meet. The reasons here given by Mr. Spencer apply to other objects as well as to men, and equally explain the primitive attribution of a ghost to all objects, whether living or not, which is known as Fetichism, or better, Animism. But he overlooks the generality of his own reasons, and wants to derive animism in a round-about way from animal-worship, which seems quite unnecessary.

In his collection of Lectures and Essays, entitled "Health and Education," Canon Kingsley does not share the gloomy views of Mr. Ruskin, who seems to think that our manufactories and coal-mines, and other abominations, are taking us straight to perdition. Mr. Kingsley rather holds that, on the whole, though with many drawbacks, we are really an improvement upon our forefathers. But the drawbacks are decidedly heavy. He tells us, for example, in a paper called "Nausicaa in London," how he took a walk through the streets after visiting the marbles of the British Museum. Admiring the marvellous perfection of the old Greek type, he seems to have become for the moment a muscular Pagan rather than a muscular Christian. And it must be granted that the drop from the ideal beauty of an ancient statue to the concrete ugliness of modern Londoners is a rather severe one. Here and there he might meet one of the healthy English girls whose slightly exuberant beauty excites the ridicule and the envy of Parisians. But these girls, he thinks, were country-bred; and it was painful to eyes accustomed to stalwart peasant

women "to remark the exceedingly small size of the average young woman" There was a want of the large frames which can support healthy brains as well as large muscles. Then he groaned, as he well might groan, over high heels, and chignons, and tight stays, and compared the victims of those atrocities with the passing gipsy with stately elastic step and swinging hip. And he goes on to meditate upon the effects of drinking too much tea and reading too many flimsy novels, and general craving for false excitement and unhealthy stimulants; and asks, not very hopefully, whether our young women brought up in such fashions will be much the better for having a little Latin and Greek drilled into them under the name of higher education.

In his lucubrations entitled "Hours in a Library," W. Leslie Stephen gives us his opinions concerning many great reputations in literature. He provokes antagonism: but his pleasant style and acute observation will not fail to attract the reader. One of his best criticisms, perhaps, is that on Hawthorne. Mr. Stephen has a theory that Hawthorne's poetry was fostered rather than checked by his living in an unpoetical country; and this sounds probable enough. But it is carrying this theory too far to say that the surroundings of Rome are "too romantic for a romance"; that Hilda's poetical tower in "Transformation" is really less poetical than Phœbe Pyncheon's garret. A slight exaggeration of this would lead to the assertion that a kitchen would make a better background than a court for the figure of Hamlet. Again, the writer does the "Twice Told Tales" but scant justice when he compares them to Brummell's failures. They have neither the full grace nor the full power of the author's later and completer works; but they will be thought by his admirers to have far greater interest than that which undoubtedly they do also possess, of "illustrating his intellectual development" Mr. Stephen's essay on De Quincey is occupied in great part with discussing that writer's claim to a super-eminent mastery of the English language, and he certainly disputes that claim with great success, although he fully admits the wonderful music and beautiful cadence of De Quincey's prose. That prose ought to be employed as a musical instrument is, with a great deal of reason, denied. Yet its employment in that manner led to a great deal of beautiful writing by De Quincey.

It has been well said by Mr. Tom Taylor in his preliminary chapter on "Leicester Square, its Associations and its Worthies," that there are few quarters of London richer in associations with great men departed; and he has done well to revive their memory by the volume now before us. All in this generation are acquainted with Leicester Square in what might be called, till quite lately, its decline and fall, when the bastard Byzantine architecture of Wyld's Great Globe supplanted the squalid garden, in the centre of which stood that unhappy equestrian statue, only to be removed and leave the wretched enclosure still more melancholy; but few are aware that this Square, now the haunt of emigrant foreigners and still more questionable company, was once the abode of Queens and great nobles, and, after them, the centre where English Art flourished in the studios of Hogarth and Reynolds, where Science was glorified under the roof inhabited by Newton, and where Surgery was ennobled in the schools of Hunter and Bell. In these pages the reader will find all that can be discovered as to the fortunes of this plot of London earth, worked up with a great deal of anecdote more or less connected, or unconnected, with it.

"Theology in the English Poets."—Mr. Stopford Brooke has struck out for himself a new and a bold course, in this attempt to associate pulpit oratory with literary criticism. Of such an attempt it is much to be able to say that, in

spite of the obvious difficulties surrounding it, the result has been a volume which—judged as a series of critical essays, not as sermons—is always interesting, and often both suggestive and valuable.

Conventional pulpit oratory might have found obvious methods for treating such a subject, but fortunately Mr. Brooke has avoided the most dangerous of these. He probably perceived that an examination of the theological opinions or experiences of individual English poets, however pastorally instructive or biographically interesting, could do little to bring religion and poetry nearer to one another. From this perversion of the subject he is consequently free, but whether, in spite of the interest of the volume, the method he has chosen has been completely successful, whether it is one the further pursuit of which is desirable—on these points we must confess to some feeling of doubt.

Mr. Brooke disclaims, at the outset, any intention of making the pulpit a platform for poetical criticism. Yet, in spite of the disclaimer, the book, if it is anything, is poetical criticism from beginning to end: unless it were so it would lose all its value. So far the disclaimer holds good, that mere verbal criticism is avoided. In place of detail Mr. Brooke has chosen for the purposes of his analysis one of the most difficult aspects of modern poetry. We all feel that in the modern phase of our English poetry there is some element super-added to the more conventional pre-existing types, which deepens its intensity and widens its range, but we cannot so easily find a name for it. We may even doubt whether there is any such solidarity in the mass of feelings and ideas which comprise it as to entitle us to classify them under one name at all. Yet we believe that, consciously or unconsciously, the upshot of this book is to affix to this pervading element a name, and to make that name theology. Mr. Brooke repudiates in one passage a "theology which should be more intellectual than spiritual", and in this sentence we may catch the keynote of the whole book. A theology which should not be intellectual but spiritual—or, in other words, a theology which is of the heart rather than of the head—is not, it will be noticed, a theology, properly so called, at all. Why then, it may be asked, if theology in its strict sense is too scientific for poetry, do you not take the kindred word, religion? Because the latter term would have been even more inadequate to express that very subtle element for which Mr. Brooke wished—wishing, as we think, an impossibility—to find some single name. Theology might be too scientific; but religion, on the other hand, wanted the speculation necessary for his purpose. Something was wanted to express the intellectual effort linked to the intense emotion which is the prime characteristic of our modern poetry. We cannot help suspecting that the choice of the term was not uninfluenced, unconsciously it may be, by the fact that the criticism came from the pulpit; and perhaps its insufficiency was not a little cloaked by that inconsequence of thought upon which a popular lecturer may safely reckon in his audience.

We have to note an important production of one of our most conspicuous living poets. It cannot be denied that Mr. Swinburne's "*Bothwell*" is a poem of a very high character. It is written in a broad, nervous style. Every line bears traces of power, individuality, and vivid imagination. There is much energy and passion in the book, but the reader will be agreeably surprised by Mr. Swinburne's new moderation and sobriety. The versification, while characteristically supple and melodious, also attains, in spite of some affectations, to sustained strength and dignity. Nevertheless the poem is too long and too wordy. The five acts of "*Bothwell*" are about equal to four or five plays of

Shakspeare rolled together. There are single speeches in it which are as long as two or three of Shakspeare's scenes. Scarcely any of the characters deign to open their mouths for less than a whole page or two of talking, and some of them have a way of running through half-a-dozen or a dozen pages without pausing for breath. We must also object that there is too much iteration in the picture of the Queen. Her bursts of rage, her curses of her enemies, her alternations of queenly dignity and womanly wile, her fondling of her stormy lover, are repeated to weariness. The most tiresome parts of the poem are her love messages to Bothwell. There is perhaps more evidence of diamatic capacity in the delineation of Darnley than in that of any of the other characters. Mr. Swinburne is more at home in description than in dramatic evolution. Here, for example, is a vivid picture of the marriage of Mary and Bothwell :—

MELVILLE. I have not seen for any chance till now
 So changed a woman in the face as she,
 Saving with extreme sickness. She was wed
 In her old mourning habits, and her face
 As deadly as were they, the soft warm joy
 That laughed in its fair feature, and put heart
 In the eyes and gracious lips as to salute
 All others' eyes with sweet regardfulness,
 Looked as when winds have worn the white-rose leaf;
 No fire between her eyelids, and no flower
 In the April of her cheeks; their spring a-cold,
 And but for want of very heart to weep
 They had been rainier than they were forlorn.

HERRIES. And his new grace of Orkney?

MELVILLE. The good Duke
 Was dumb while Adam Bothwell with grave lips
 Set forth the scandal of his lewd life past
 And fair faith of his present penitence,
 Whose days to come being higher than his past place
 Should expiate those gone by, and their good works
 Atone those evil; hardly twitched his eye
 Or twinkled half his thick lip's curve of hair,
 Listening; but when the bishop made indeed
 His large hard hand with hers so flowerlike fast,
 He seemed as 'twere for pride and mighty heart
 To swell and shine with passion, and his eye
 To take into the fire of its red look
 All dangers and all adverse things that might
 Rise out of days unisen, to burn them up
 With its great heat of triumph; and the hand
 Fastening on hers so griped it that her lips
 Trembled, and turned to catch the smile from his,
 As though her spirit had put its own life off
 And sense of joy or property of pain
 To close with his alone; but this twin smile
 Was briefer than a flash or gust that strikes
 And is not; for the next word was not said
 Ere her face waned again to winter-ward

As a moon smitten, and her answer came
 As words from dead men wickedly wrung forth
 By craft of wizards, forged and forceful breath
 Which hangs on lips that loath it.

"Alexander the Great:" a Dramatic Poem, by Aubrey de Vere. Mr. de Vere's former poems hardly warranted the belief that so much poetic power lay in him as this drama shows. It is terse as well as full of beauty, nervous as well as rich in thought. The character of Alexander grows upon us as we read, till it fascinates us by the force of the almost unerring yet half-animal intellect, and that imperious self-will which it displays. The only thing we miss that ought to be in the poem, is a fuller delineation of the passionate and single devotion to his friend, Hephestion, which is the key to the drama, and yet rather assumed in it than painted. The picture actually painted is rather that of an Alexander in whom no such intense personal devotion to a friend would have been possible. We know that that devotion was a matter of history; on its intensity depends an essential and critical element of the drama; and the violent passion resulting from the wound inflicted by death on that overweening devotion is very finely painted; but the devotion itself is not shown to us, is hardly made a visible thread in the character of the conqueror. We are told enough about it, but hardly made to see how it belongs to the character itself. In a very fine conversation, the last which takes place between Alexander and the friend who is to him what Patroclus was to Achilles, Alexander confesses,—

I sometimes think
 That I am less a person than a power,
 Some engine in the right hand of the gods,
 Some fateful wheel that, round in darkness rolling,
 Knows this—its work; but not that work's far scope.
 Hephestion, what is life? My life, since boyhood,
 Hath been an agony of means to ends:
 An ultimate end I find not. For that cause,
 On-reeling in the oppression of a void,
 At times I welcome what I once scarce brooked,
 The opprobrium of blank sleep.

No fantasies of style or mannerisms interfere with the plain purpose of Mr. de Vere's work, and common sense balances its imaginative power. A slight archaism of style lends illusion; but the poet is not afraid of those modern phrases which link the subject of his drama with modern thought. Of course faults could be found in the occasionally rugged rhythm, and here and there a line might be relieved from over-weight of meaning; but in a work like this we are not careful to note trifling imperfections.

"Horæ Hellenicæ."—In the eleven essays which Professor Blackie has published under the above title he takes his readers over a large and varied field of disquisition; so much so, in fact, that if it were not somewhat ungracious to do so, we should be inclined to wish for a little more uniformity in the subjects of his lucubrations. It is possible to have a dinner of too many courses; and after one has been taken from the theology of Homer to the principle of onomatopœia in language, thence to the agrarian laws of Lycurgus, and thence to a criticism on accent in Greek and English, one rises with a feeling almost approaching satiety from the classical repast. Still, it may reasonably enough be replied that this result is easily avoided by making a selection from the

dishes before us; and in this case of course their very variety will constitute their highest recommendation. Equal excellence, however, they could hardly be expected to possess; it is enough that their merits are not strikingly unequal, and that the utmost that can be said is that some of Professor Blackie's essays, either by reason of their subject or (though this we admit is more rarely the case), by reason of its treatment, do not repay perusal so well as others. The real value of the book, as of all that Mr. Blackie has hitherto done, lies in the modern Greek part, and in the dealing with the question of accent.

In the performance of his task of providing English readers with a worthy transcript of Sophocles, Mr. Campbell could have found no better field in which to exhibit his author's genius and his own aptitudes than the instalment now presented to us. For samples of neat and poetic translation we may take one or two brief excerpts; the first is from the speech of Œdipus when he has come forth from the palace-doors, and meets the Chorus, with the gore still streaming from his maimed eyes, the horror of his situation provoking retrospection, and leading him to dwell on what might have been, but for his own unwitting acts. In the first place he justifies his self-mutilation (τοιάνδ' ἐγὼ κηλίδα — γλυκύ) :—

And was I then,
By mine own process branded thus, to look
On Theban faces with unaltered mien?
Nay verily; but had there been a way
To stop the hearing fountain through the ear,
I had not faltered, but had closed and barred
Each gate of this poor body; deaf and blind!
So thought might sweetly dwell at rest from harm.

And, shortly after, he breaks out into a pathetic reminiscence of the scene of his unintentional parricide.—

O cross-road in the covert of the glen,
O thicket in the gorge where three roads met,
Bedewed by these my hands with mine own blood,
From whence I sprang—have you forgotten me?
Or doth some memory haunt you of the deeds
I did before you, and then came and wrought
Fresh horrors here?

The introduction to Professor Kennedy's translation of the "Birds of Aristophanes," it is possible to speak of without any qualification. It is a most valuable examination of the various theories as to the motive, in the artistic sense, of this comedy; and we are glad to see that Dr. Kennedy condemns unhesitatingly what we may call the "high politico-allegorical" theory first started by Professor Suvern, and which would turn this plainest-sailing of comedies into an elaborate and far-fetched skit on the Sicilian expedition, convert Cloudecuckoo town into Syracuse, the hoopoe into Lamachus, and Iris into "an escaped Peloponesian galley."

Humour and poetry are so blended together in the "Birds," the web of delicate fancy is so shot everywhere and unexpectedly with the strands of mirth, that a version which imperfectly reflects one of these qualities of the original can hardly do justice to the other; but, wherever they are separable, Professor Kennedy is, we think, far more successful with the poetry than with

the peculiar humour of his author. The beautiful "invocation to the nightingale" is admirably rendered; and so is the antode *ἐν ἄκρῳ ὄρει πτηνῶν*. In the latter Professor Kennedy seems to have most thoroughly caught the fanciful grace of the original.—

Happy are the feathered folk
 Who in winter wear no cloak,
 And the summer does not burn us
 With its hot, far-flashing furnace.
 But in flowery meads I dwell,
 Linger oft in leafy dell,
 When the inspired cicada's gladness
 Swelling into sunny madness
 Filleth all the fervid noon
 With its shrill and ceaseless tune.
 But throughout the wintry day,
 In some hollow cave I stay,
 With the mountain nymphs at play;
 Myrtle berries, spring-bedewed,
 White and tender, are my food,
 And a thousand delicacies
 From the gardens of the Graces.

Of remarkable novels there are none to mention this year. "Patricia Kemball," by Mrs. Lynn Linton; "A Rose in June," by Mrs. Oliphant; "Far from the Madding Crowd," by Mr. Hardy, are perhaps those that have received most attention. There was indeed a semi-political squib which, early in the spring, was talked of, and cried up in some quarters a great deal beyond its deserts, bearing for title the "Fall of Prince Florestan of Monaco: by Himself." It was supposed to narrate the career of a well-meaning young man, called from an English University education to rule over a petty continental State. Its authorship was anonymous, and led to much rumour and speculation, but we must consider its merit to have been very unequal to the temporary sensation it created, and the sensation itself to have been owing rather to its magnificent array of advertisement, its handsome "get up," and its unknown origin, than to any remarkable wit or acuteness of satire in its composition. Before the close of the year, however, an authentic volume of royal lucubrations appeared in the shape of a "Diary kept by the Shah of Persia during his visit to Europe in 1873." The Shah spent fourteen days in Russia, twenty in Germany and Belgium, eighteen in England, nineteen in France and Switzerland, nineteen in Italy and Austria, and eleven in Turkey, occupying eleven days in his return to Persia through Georgia. His experience in England is described in seventy-two pages. His Majesty was very observant, and he frequently notes the means and style of living of those with whom he came in contact, mentioning even the reputed incomes of his hosts. The landing at Dover and the railway journey to London are minutely described. He was greatly astonished at the vastness of London, and speaking of the arrival at Charing Cross, and the route to Buckingham Palace, says:—

"Both sides of the road, the roofs, the upper storeys of the houses, were full of women, men, and children, who exhibited much joy and pleasure by shouting hurrahs, by waving handkerchiefs, by clapping hands. It was a surprising turmoil. I saluted incessantly with head and hands. The crowd of

spectators was never-ending. The population of the city is said to be over eight crores (four millions) of souls. It has most lovely women. The nobleness, the greatness, the gravity, and sedateness of the women and men shine out from their countenances. One sees and comprehends that they are a great people, and that the Lord of the Universe has bestowed upon them power and might, sense and wisdom, and enlightenment. Thus it is that they have conquered a country like India, and hold important possessions in America and elsewhere in the world. Their soldiers are very strong of frame and beautifully attired; their armour-wearing household cavalry are very strong and handsome young men, exquisitely dressed, like the cavalry in Russia. Their horses are very fine and strong, but their number is few. They are but four regiments, each of four hundred men."

Nothing pleased his Majesty more than his visit to the Crystal Palace. "In front of the building a tent was pitched. Prince Alfred, the lady Princesses, and nobles were waiting for us there; and they had prepared fruit, ices, and the like. We tarried there a few minutes, until the Heir-Apparent of England, the Heir-Apparent of Russia, their wives, and others arrived. We then took the hand of the wife of the English Heir-Apparent, and entered the building. A wonderful assembly came in view. On each side of our path they had arranged chairs, on which beautiful women in splendid attire, with men, were seated in rows, leaving a space through which we were to pass, so that it was necessary to traverse the whole of them. The palace is of iron and crystal. It is so lofty and spacious that this evening 40,000 individuals came here with tickets. Well, we went to the centre of the building, which has a lofty arcade. In the middle of the arcade there is a basin of water, made to represent natural rocks and mountains, with a beautiful fountain, from which water flowed plentifully. On the left-hand side there was a gallery with steps to it, at the top of which was a balcony with many chairs arranged in it. I, the Heir-Apparent, their wives, the lady Princesses, and the Princes, all sat down there. Facing us there was a large organ, similar to the one in the Albert Hall. There were also a numerous orchestra and singers. They played, they sang, and such an assembly was there in that place, above and below, around and on all sides, seated on chairs, that one's eyes were dazzled." He then describes the various performances of the gymnasts, &c. His valedictory reflections are complimentary to our nation. "Well; had we the wish to write as they deserve all the particulars of the City of London, or of all England, we should have to write a voluminous history of England; but, during a stay of only eighteen days in London it really has not been possible to write more than we have done. In justice (we can but say that), the demeanour of the English, and everything of theirs, is extremely well regulated and governed, and admirable. In respect to populousness, the wealth of the people, the commerce, the arts, business, and *dolce far niente*, they are the chief of all nations."

The last book of the year which attracted special notice, and one which from its subject and the circumstances of its publication will perhaps be remembered almost more enduringly than any other on our record, was the "Last Journals of David Livingstone in Central Africa, from 1865 to his death. Continued by a narrative of his last moments and sufferings, obtained from his faithful servants Chuma and Susi." By Horace Waller, F.R.G.S. The great traveller persistently made notes during his seven years of wandering, with the exception of one short period of distress and confusion. Besides the papers which were brought back by Mr. Stanley, the original note-books up till the

time of his death were preserved and brought back by his faithful native servants. Mr Waller has thus been able to put together a very complete history. He deserves great praise for the excellence of his editing, which has evidently been a labour of love. No editing, however, can possibly do for us what Livingstone could have done himself. At best we must be content with receiving the raw materials of a book of travels instead of the complete book. Many brief hints would have been expanded. A general description of the features of a district or the habits of a tribe would have summed up a series of detached remarks. And, in particular, we should have had a more complete statement of the principles by which Livingstone was guided in his explorations. It is of course not difficult to understand his general purpose; but here and there we should have been glad to know what were the precise considerations which determined the direction of his wanderings. The absence of such explanations helps to give a rather melancholy character to the book. Livingstone seems in it to be suffering under a kind of waking nightmare. The indomitable will is always present; but it is no longer able to overcome the oppressive weight of obstacles. As in a dream, the traveller is constantly struggling to move, and can yet make no continuous progress. And, as in a dream, he is surrounded by hideous scenes of grotesque cruelty which increase his misery, but leave him utterly powerless to interfere. His course seems to be directed by external fate rather than to conform to any wishes of his own. His frequent helplessness owing to the desertion of his servants and the bad faith of the Arab traders, his almost ceaseless sufferings from various forms of disease, his compulsory detentions for weeks and months in remote villages, are painful in the reading, though they increase our admiration of the dogged courage which bore him through them all.

A few dates may help to make the general outline of the story more intelligible. Livingstone left the coast on April 7, 1866. Four months' travelling took him to the Lake Nyassa, the scene of some of his earlier explorations; he went round the south end of the lake, and the year 1867 was consumed in a long march through intricate mountain ranges to the south end of Tanganyika, and thence, nearly due west, to the lake Moero, formed by the River Luapula, which he supposed to be the upper course of the Nile. After a long stay with a native chief near the shores of this lake, he struck southwards to the larger Lake Bangweolo, from which the Luapula issues. This was reached in the middle of 1868, and the remainder of that year and the beginning of 1869 were occupied in a return to Lake Tanganyika and Ujiji. In the autumn of 1869 he started again due east, into the hitherto unexplored Manyuema country. Two years passed away in this region; till at last he retired exhausted and destitute to Ujiji, and there met Mr. Stanley in October 1871. With Mr Stanley he visited the head of Tanganyika; and afterwards waited for supplies during a great part of 1872. In the autumn he started once more to the south to complete his exploration of the great Bangweolo lake, and, whilst passing round its southern shore, he fell ill, and died on May 1, 1873. His followers completed the circuit of the lake, carrying his body with them, and, as we know, returned successfully to the coast.

A R T .

THOUGH by no means to be classed as first-rate, the Royal Academy Exhibition this year possesses undoubtedly more pictures of interest and value than its predecessor. As one of its critics remarked. "An improved artistic spirit is gradually making itself felt in the product of every school, and although this is not in itself sufficient to ensure a great achievement, it exercises a welcome control over expression, and gives even to the most prosaic theme a measure of pictorial worth. The improvement is more noticeable in colour than design. There are signs of an earnest endeavour to select individual hues of greater purity, and to dispose them in more harmonious relation, so that in several instances subjects taken from modern life, and of quite realistic significance, are treated in such a way as to preserve some attraction for those who care little for the social or moral lessons they have to teach. This is an advance of the highest importance to English art, for it is through increased knowledge in matters that concern the technical side of painting rather than by any other means, that we must look for a better understanding of more important things." Coming to particular pictures, there was one which attracted attention more than any other in the room. Whether the dense crowd which day by day clustered round it, was called together by its intrinsic merits, or by the fact that the artist was a lady and young in years, or by the marked encomiums bestowed upon it by the Prince of Wales in his speech at the Royal Academy's opening dinner, may be matter of mixed opinion. Still, so it was that *the* picture of the Burlington House exhibition this season was unquestionably Miss Thompson's "Calling the Roll after an Engagement." Miss Thompson had already been favourably known in the Dudley Gallery; but her achievement on the present occasion was a surprise. The subject may be thus described. After an engagement in the Crimea, an officer on horseback meets, on the field of battle, the sergeant with the muster-roll; the story to be told is evidently very sad; many are the missing and the dead, and the men who remain to answer to their names bear marks of rough service. Half covered in the snow lies a dead soldier, and over him, with bowed head and clenched hands, stands his comrade, a picture of desolation. It is impossible for a narrative to be told more simply, truly, or pathetically; the incidents touch the heart, the drawing and the execution go direct to nature. And the merit of the picture is the more genuine, because the grouping and colouring are necessarily monotonous. The snow-covered ground and the row of bear-skin hats and grey greatcoats lend no adventitious charms to the effect. At the Academy dinner, in the course of the speeches made by the Prince of Wales and the Duke of Cambridge, the military accuracy of the picture both in grouping and expression, was specially dwelt upon. In the newspapers afterwards a brisk controversy was carried on between Miss Thompson and her critics, as to the order in which a horse's footsteps naturally proceed: a question which it was curious to see how little observation could decide.

Next to the picture by Miss Thompson, some contributed by Millais attracted the most attention. Two landscapes in the first gallery, and a large figure-subject in a place of honour in the large room, might be said to show at its highest point the artist's marvellous capability in producing illusion and in presenting a scene in such a way as to impress us at once with the sense of a sharp and close contact with reality, and of a craft apt for every difficulty of execution.

One of the landscapes is a fir wood, where a few tree trunks are set against a silent sky; and the other, called "Winter Fuel," is a view of distant wooded cliff, brown with the tints of late autumn, an intervening space of grass still vividly green, and a foreground of hewn branches of the silver birch. No other painter of this or, perhaps, of any time, could trace with such calm assurance of technical power the forms of the spine-shaped leaves of the fir, or give the startling sense of solidity to the curious patterns upon the bark. While, in regard to colour, there is in the first-named landscape the difficult blue of the sky, in its way a triumph of painting, and in the second the brilliant contrast of strong tints in the red of the child's cloak, the green of the meadow, and the radiant hues of the boughs upon the waggon. The amazing literalness of realisation, apart from that insight of imagination which is ever a gift of Mr. Millais, strikes us in both these pictures, as well as in the figure-piece entitled the "North West Passage." The scene we have before us here, is the humble sitting-room of a retired sailor (the portrait is said to be that of Lord Byron's friend, Trelawny), an old whaling captain, or it may be an ancient mariner who has served in some of the voyages of Arctic exploration, as we infer from the picture of a ship beset by ice, which hangs on his wall, beside a full-length print of Nelson. The old sailor sits in his chair, with a glass of steaming, mahogany-coloured grog at his elbow, while his granddaughter reads to him, out of one of his old logbooks, the record of the voyage in which he was beset in the pack, as set forth in the picture over the reader's head. As she reads, the recollection of the perils of the ice has passed into the thought how they might and should be baffled, and with a clenched fist he emphasises his words, "It might be done, and England should do it." An old Union Jack in the corner of the room (for hoisting on a flagstaff in the garden on great naval anniversaries); the chart of the Arctic regions open on the table; the soiled old logbooks piled in the corner under the window that opens on the sea, on whose quiet, grey surface a pilot cutter is tacking; some daffodils and jonquils in a blue-and-white jug on the table, help to point the meaning of the picture—one of the most vigorous and complete yet exhibited by this painter.

"The Picture Gallery," by Mr. Alma Tadema, in several important respects must be reckoned the strongest work of the year. No other work in the gallery shows such mastery in the management of light, which is here so delicately diffused over his subject as almost to banish the use of shadow, and yet to leave the figures solidly disposed in their space. The picture gallery represented is of an antique type, and there are Roman names affixed to the works on the walls. In the foreground a group is gathered round a small design, set upon an easel so as to bring the faces of the connoisseurs into full view. A young man bends forward eagerly, a beautiful face looks over his shoulder, and further back there is an old man standing with his hand extended, as if in emphasis of some point of discussion. We can recall no picture of these later days where a subject of such simple significance has been rendered with so much regard to beauty. It has sometimes been urged against Mr. Tadema's studies of the antique world that they lack reality. There is no lack of reality here. But besides the impression of actual portraiture, we have the most delicate pattern, made up of precious and exquisite tints. Mr. Tadema has the art of choosing his colours in such a way that each separate hue seems like a discovery. There is no common element in the whole scheme.

Mr. Boughton has seldom been so happy as in "God speed! Pilgrims setting out for Canterbury; time of Chaucer." The reading of the story is unhack-

neyed; it is wholly unlike the compositions of Stothard, Blake, and others. The picture may be said to rely on the multiplication of incident, episode, and by-play; several of the characters, forsaking the beaten path, betake themselves to the springtide meadows; the liquid air and the budding trees are of the vernal time which the poet loved so well; indeed we may fancy that Chaucer's favourite daisy springs beneath the pilgrims' feet. In the foreground, a pretty girl offers a draught of water to a youth whose weary journey seems likely to end in a pilgrimage of love. The eye is pleasantly carried hither and thither among a company who wander as they list through a composition arranged rather after the older plan than according to our more concentrated modern method.

Mr. Frith's procession picture, entitled "Blessing the Little Children," is a prominent picture of the Exhibition, and deserves mention. The composition, in spite of its semi-sacred character, is as amusing as a profane medley. It is true that a bishop in mitre and full canonicals stands as the centre, around which throng mothers with children in arms, girls in gala costumes, and boys on crutches. And the painter has done his best to concentrate attention on the main action; but the eye of the spectator is inevitably distracted by curious incidents and comic by-play, until it at last wanders, inadvertently, far away up the street along which the bannered procession slowly toils its way. It must be admitted that many of the characters are true to the life; in fact, character is the painter's strong point.

Some persons prophesy the impending decay of our English school. They see in the preponderance of costume over character, in the preference given to accidents rather than to essentials, in the love of decorative allurement instead of elevated motive, signs of that luxury and intoxication which have ever proved fatal to art. And certainly it were easy to adduce from the Academy evidence in support of this discouraging view; artists are found on every side to play superficially with their subjects; thus Mr. Frith, R.A., quoting the lines of James Montgomery, "prayer is the burden of a sigh," "the upward glancing of an eye," is content with a sentiment skin-deep only. The lady here chosen to personify "Prayer" might adorn a balcony at a carnival, or a window at a boat-race. The head, which is cleanly and smoothly painted, is soulless.

Almost the only effort in the way of religious art, worthy of serious consideration, is the "Adoration of the Magi," by Mr. Herbert, R.A. The scene is laid in the cave of the rock over which now stands the Church of the Nativity. Beneath stretch the hills and the olive-clad valleys of Bethlehem. The moon is still up, yet it is not night, for the dawn approaches, and silver light illumines the cavern where the three kings present their gifts to the Infant and the Mother. The artist in his treatment tries to effect a compromise between old and new schools, between traditional art and actual nature. The success of the attempt is not quite assured; nature would be nearer to reality, and tradition would retain more of the halo of sanctity.

Mr. Armitage, R.A., following in the footsteps of M. Delaroche and M. Flandrin, indulges in "A Dream of Fair Women of Ancient Greece." This frieze-like composition, evidently designed for mural decoration, comprises Pandora with her box, Cleopatra with the asp, also Helen, Sappho, Aspasia, and others. The style, as a matter of course, inclines to the classic and statuesque; the arrangement relies on proportion and defined interval, principles of composition which Greek artists are said to have derived from Pythagoras. Yet these principles, which are supposed to lie at the root of beauty, are not here supreme; in other words, this company of fair women are scarcely fair enough.

Also in the Lecture-room, in a central place upon the line, hangs Mr. Leighton's massive and majestic figure—"Clytemnestra from the bath-rooms of Aigos watches for the beacon-fires which are to announce the return of Agamemnon." The pose is immobile and statuesque. Clytemnestra stands firm and erect as a column, stern is her mien and calm her eye, and from her shoulders fall, in graceful lines, draperies which clothe the figure fully as in the ancient statues of Minerva and Pudicitia. The light within the picture is spectral, indeed the figure is so cold that we might almost imagine flesh had been changed into stone.

Of contrasted gloom and gladness we want no better type than Mr. E. M. Wad's "Marie Antoinette" sleeping her last sleep before mounting the tumhil, with the remains of her last meal by her pallet—and lying on a stool, still nearer, the tresses of her hair, prematurely blanched, with the letter meant to be sent with them to Madame Elizabeth for the children she was never to see on earth again; and Mr. Horsley's "Sunny Effects," a happy lover about to avail himself of the chance of winning a pair of gloves on the lips of his lady-love, who has dropped asleep in the drowsy warmth of a storied bay window in the old baronial hall. It is in such glimpses into a pleasant past that we recognise Mr. Horsley, rather than in the great picture of the "Healing Mercies of Christ," in Gallery II., painted at the request of Sir William Tite, and, in accordance with his intention, to be presented to the Chapel of St. Thomas's Hospital. The painter, in his composition, has gathered around the healer all the leading examples of his healing powers—the daughter of Jarius, the widow's son of Nain, the cripple of the wayside, the demoniac of the tombs, the paralysed and halt and blind of the synagogue, and the leper of Capernaum.

A careful study of Mr. Leighton's "Antique Juggling Girl" disappoints the first impression of its beauty. The scheme of the picture, with a single nude figure set in warm sunlight that is evenly diffused in delicate modulations of colour, seems at first sight to be specially fitted to exhibit the painter's most graceful accomplishments, and up to a certain point the charm is perfectly preserved. In the painting of the flesh and in the decorative treatment of all that surrounds the figure there is little to desire, the sense of failure attaches only to the figure itself. An attempt to secure the loveliness of repose in outline, has fettered in some way the sense of movement, so that we do not feel that the painter has caught a moment of repose in the swift play of the arms, but that they are rigidly disposed in an attitude that needs some other explanation; while, as regards other parts of the figure, the modelling of the lower limbs does not suggest nobility of form. In the "Moorish Garden a Dream of Granada" the imagination of the painter moves with less restraint. Here the elements of a beautiful design seem to be kept in control by the subtle influence of music heard remotely. The stately peacocks pass softly across the foreground, the stream slips quietly through its trim garden banks, and the sense of recollected things seen dimly in the fixed image of a dream is preserved in the subdued harmony of colour, where not even the brilliant hues of the birds' plumage are permitted to disturb the shadowed calm and stillness. In this work and in the view of the "Jews' Quarter in Damascus" Mr. Leighton is seen at his best.

The "Prometheus Bound" of Mr. W. B. Richmond may be pronounced the most ambitious attempt in the gallery. It is fair to note the fitness and impressiveness of all that is accessory to the central figure, the wild birds floating with free wings around the imprisoned hero, and the deep gulf of sea that lies far below, lit by a waning sun and dimly rising moon. But the figure itself

scarcely sustains the grand purpose towards which all these other elements are directed. It was, before all things, necessary in such a subject that the splendid might and nobility of Prometheus himself should in some way be made superior to any accidents of fate. The majestic symmetry of his colossal form should remain with us as the final and enduring impression; and the mere fact that the hero is enslaved should only be taken as a suggestion to dispose the limbs in a particular direction, and not to take away the sense of individual sovereignty. In Mr. Richmond's picture the action is more prominent than the worth and beauty of the actor the conflict is greater than the combatant. We seem to feel from it clearly and even impressively the anguish and suffering of bondage, but we do not gain the same conviction of individual grace and majesty. On the whole, it must be confessed that while we ought to be reminded of Michael Angelo, we cannot help thinking of Fuseli.

Mr. Watts generally manages to secure for his portraits something more than the attraction of pictorial excellence. The most remarkable men of the time have become the painter's sitters, and year by year further examples are added to complete a very important artistic record of the chief living intellects. This year we have the Rev. James Martineau, the Unitarian preacher, and the late Mr. John Stuart Mill. Whether from the fact that Mr. Watts was unable to make a sufficiently close study of Mr. Mill's face, or from inherent difficulties in dealing pictorially with the particular countenance, this portrait does not do full justice either to the painter or his subject. With sufficient fidelity in individual features, the picture nevertheless conveys the least noble impression of the face as a whole. There was an element of urbanity in Mr. Mill's countenance which helped to subdue the sources of nervous and even irritable expression, and held in momentary calm the over-sensitive and changeful lines about the mouth. Mr. Watts seems to us to have emphasised the purely naturalistic and structural qualities of the face, and to have scarcely reached beyond. The portrait is too much like a mask which records a single phase of expression without regard to its source, so that we seem to have here only a part of a portrait, giving in some degree the effect of caricature. The natural dignity of Mr. Martineau's head has aroused the painter to a very much higher achievement. The massive, firmly controlled lines of the forehead, the deeply set eyes, and the large sensitive mouth, are so many elements of character that appeal naturally to the painter, and through which the intellectual individuality can be directly and easily expressed. This must be reckoned one of the finest among the many good works in portraiture Mr. Watts has given us.

Among remarkable portraits we would also mention that of Father Newman, by Roden.

The "Heart of Surrey" is a typical example of Mr. Vicat Cole's stock landscape, in which the "bone" of soil and foliage is lost in the flooding sunlight. Both Mr. Vicat and Mr. George Cole seem to have completely mastered their mode of rendering this kind of country and this class of effects, and to be unable or unwilling to travel beyond it, as the younger Messrs. Linnell from leaving the blue, rolling Surrey distances and yellow harvest fields and straggling copsewood, in which they live and move and have their pictorial being.

Among coast scenes stands forth Peter Grahame's "Northern Walls," huge cliffs of Ross, or Sutherland, or the more northern isles, with the Atlantic leaping madly at their stony faces, or sucked backward by the under-tow from their feet, and the cormorants winging their flight over the rock-tables that scarcely rise out of the sea-wash at the time of tide. One hears complaint of the quality

of the work—that the rock is not rocky, and the water not watery. But the subject is a mighty one, and the painter, to the judgment of the uninitiated at least, has translated something of its mightiness into the language of colour and canvas.

Hook is delightful in his “Shetland Kelp-burners” and “Under the Lee of a Rock.”

Mr. Moore’s study of rough weather in the open Mediterranean is certainly the highest accomplishment yet received from his hand. The drawing shows a very rare mastery over the restless forms of waves, and the picture presents with unusual effect the vague, aimless motion of a large mass of troubled water. By its firm hold upon reality the work takes a foremost place, and it is by force of this profound accuracy rather than by gifts of composition that it gains its influence.

Mr. Brett is certainly not among those whose efforts after realism suffer from want of technical skill. His picture of “Summer Noon in the Scilly Isles” must be reckoned a marvellous piece of imitative landscape, wherein every smallest fact has been conscientiously observed and painted with almost complete success so far as perfect illusion can be accounted pictorial success. The picture seems to us to lack nothing but beauty. It reproduces the features of a scene which has evidently fascinated Mr. Brett, without disclosing in what way the influence of nature has been felt, and thus it does not yield to us any higher or different impression than would be given by the scene itself. Mr. Brett’s art does nothing to help out and interpret the beauty that underlies literal truth and makes it valuable. The scene has passed through no process of digestion before it appears upon the canvas, and the artist’s vision is like a mirror, reflecting without change the facts presented to it.

Again the collection of sculpture disappoints the expectations which were naturally raised when the Academy took possession of the spacious and well-lit galleries in Burlington House. In former years, when complaints were heard of the low estate of plastic art in England, the ready reply was that few great artists would care to show their works in the cellar known as the “Black Hole” of Trafalgar Square. But now when, in place of a dungeon, sculptors are invited to occupy a “Vestibule,” a “Hall,” and a “Gallery,” it becomes too apparent that the fault has never been so much in the means of exhibition as in the quality of the art. There is a class of work which is favoured by darkness and oblivion, and certainly the high light here thrown on marble, terra-cotta, and plaster, makes conspicuous the inarticulate modelling, the weak generalisation, and the rapid sentiment in which second-rate sculptors of the English school habitually take refuge. And the misfortune is that some of our best men, such as Mr. Foley, R.A., and Mr. Woolner, A.R.A., are either absent or inadequately represented. At all events, in the 191 groups, figures, bas-reliefs, and busts here congregated, mediocrity is the rule, and merit the exception, and what strikes us as specially humiliating is that such genius as presents itself—as, for example, in the creations of M. Carpeaux and M. Dalou—mostly comes from abroad.

At Messrs. Christie and Manson’s auction rooms this year were sold two remarkable collections of pictures—the Holmewood collection, and the Barker collection. The first was valuable as a complete record of the progress of English art, of which no phase or movement was left quite without representation, while in some directions the material was unusually ample. The second was remarkable for its exquisite Italian pictures, chiefly belonging to the earlier periods of

Italian art. Of these Italian pictures, five were purchased for the National Gallery, being two classical designs by Botticelli, a fresco by Signoretti, a fresco by Pinturicchio, and a picture of the Nativity by Piero della Francesca. This picture of the Nativity is a very striking composition. A group of angels, singing and playing, stand over the form of the infant Christ, which is laid upon a part of the scarf that surrounds the body of the kneeling Virgin. On the right, St. Joseph is sitting, and behind, in the shadow of a rough shed that stands out against the quiet landscape, are two other figures, of shepherds. The composition strangely combines a direct simplicity with the effect of profoundly considered grace. There is a sense of stateliness and calm in the action of the figures, as though the music they played were neither swift nor loud, their forms stand erect and firm, the grace of their movement seems unsought, and yet is exquisite and rare. So strongly felt is the presence of this severe simplicity that the picture is rather a vision than an invention, impressing us as if the painter had somehow found in nature what by others must be laboriously sought for in the difficult realm of art.

The second Exhibition of Works in Black and White at the Dudley Gallery this summer, deserves mention. Besides etchings, engravings, drawings in charcoal, black and white chalks, pen and ink, lamp black, Indian ink, and other pigments strictly comprehended under the title, it includes drawings in red chalk, sepia, and other varieties of monochromatic material. With the tendency now prevailing to excessive minuteness of detail, and to reliance upon the use of colour as the chief means to effect, this Exhibition is fraught with instruction to artists. Prominent among its attractions this year were two pen-and-ink drawings by Miss Elizabeth Thompson, the painter of the "Roll Call," at the Academy. These are two scenes of soldier-life—"Gallop," a reminiscence of Woolwich, Horse Artillery just breaking from trot to top speed, and "Halt," a reminiscence of Aldershot, light cavalry pulling up in the full swing of a charge. These drawings will not tend to diminish the common wonder how Miss Thompson comes by her military inspirations, so full are they of the most impetuous life and action in man and horse, and so perfectly do they convey the two opposite impressions—the one of rapid motion, suddenly quickening into more rapid; and the other of rapid motion suddenly arrested. We should not omit to mention an exquisite group, in *terra cotta*, of a young mother teaching her child to read, by Dalou.

The picture galleries of the International Exhibition at South Kensington contain this year about 2,000 pictures, the contributions from foreign countries being as numerous as ever, and including some works of conspicuous merit. The great mass of the new paintings exhibited are, however, of a very mediocre quality, and, as a matter of course, the interest of the large collection centres in the room devoted to the works of deceased British artists. The artists represented are Constable, Wilkie, David Roberts, Egg, Prout, Cotman, Wild, and others. Her Majesty lends several fine Wilkies, among them the "Guerilla taking leave of his Confessor," the "Man of Saragossa," "Blind Man's Buff," and the "Penny Wedding," and the gallery contains some 30 other pictures by Sir David, and near 50 by David Roberts, among them the fine painting of "Jerusalem," lent by the Duke of Westminster. The cracked condition of some of the pictures here exhibited is sad to see. Roberts's "Front of Rouen Cathedral," lent by Mr. Octavius Coope, is fissured like ground baked by the sun, and the paint has in parts peeled off in large pieces. Many of Wilkie's pictures are much damaged in the same way, the cause being the use of asphalt as a ground

to paint upon, a practice generally discarded by artists of the present day. Egg's "Life and Death of Buckingham" (Mr. T. H. Coles) is painted in two compartments, one displaying Buckingham at his revels with the witty monarch and his Court, the other showing us "the worst inn's worst room," in which great Villiers lies dying. The same artist's "Peppys's Introduction to Nell Gwynne" is here, both in the larger picture (Mr A. J. Lewis), and in the smaller (Mr. H. W. Bolckow). The diarist is in the act of giving pretty Nelly a fatherly kiss. This is one of Egg's best works. The Loan Collection numbers in all nearly 300 examples of the artists we have named. It is a pity that the rich treat which this gallery offers should have been impaired by the carelessness of the Committee of Selection. Spurious pictures have no right to a place in any gallery, and least of all in a gallery intended for the instruction of the general public.

The early Spring Exhibition at Burlington House was devoted to the works of Sir Edwin Landseer. Between four and five hundred paintings from the hand of this great master were displayed to the public, which had thus an opportunity of tracing the development and application of his genius, from its dawn in the wonderful studies made from the life in Hampstead fields by the bright boy of seven, to its last fitful gleams in the failing and uncertain work of the worn-out man of threescore and ten. How far Landseer's genius was fitted to serve the cause of art may be learned from the record that is here afforded of his gradual progress. There was a point beyond which there was no further development of a purely pictorial kind. The popular element comes in suddenly and sometimes obtrusively, and destroys any prospect there might have been of grand artistic achievement. His popularity rests chiefly upon his powers of sentiment, and upon his ability to wrest from animal life a pathos of a purely domestic kind. By the force of his art animals are shown to be companionable creatures, with something more than human affection and fidelity, and something less than human frailty.

In the Exhibition of Water-Colour Drawings now opened to the public, the signs of a limited and failing ambition are not less noticeable than a steadfast adherence to the habit of quiet and temperate expression. A review of the galleries of the old Society suggests the conclusion that our water-colour painters, now, scarcely affect to make their art more than a thing of mere prettiness and trivial taste, and that they do not hope for the influence that belongs to the nobler forms of pictorial loveliness. It is certain they make but small effort to attract the profound sympathy and emotion which art, no less than poetry, may fitly arouse.

In the rooms of the older Society there is a small drawing by Mr. Alma Tadema which serves as a protest against much else that surrounds it, and easily escapes the general censure. It is called "Autumn," and under the shadow of trees whose heavy trunks are set against a quiet twilight sky, we are shown a marble seat whereon tired wayfarers are resting. There is an admirable harmony between the stillness and tender sadness of the shadowy light and the motionless attitude of the wearied figures on the seat. A little to the right, and in a space of brighter light, two other figures, of a youth and a maid, are moving slowly away, and on the other side there is deeper shadow, where the thicker growth shuts out the waning light. In the beautiful use made of the tree trunks, Mr. Tadema shows how landscape may be subjected to the purposes of design; and the scheme of colour has a perfect accord with the tints of actual landscape, without losing its decorative beauty. The other drawings by

the same painter are less important in composition ; but one, a "Roman Artist," is noticeable for the powerful management of light, and the well-chosen attitude of the figure. Nor can we pass without special mention F Powell's large drawing, a wide-weltering grey sea, with islands looming through the sea-fret, but no trace of life in the shape of ship or boat, spar or sail. The sea, and nothing but the sea, in its restless shifting of hill and hollow, with the network of spray upon the face of its upheaved ridges, and the intermittent crests of foam that crown them here and there. This is another of those sea studies in which Mr Powell has taken a step beyond all who have painted certain grand aspects of the ocean, if not the grandest or most difficult of expression.

A great fight went on this year about the restoration of St. Paul's Cathedral. The Executive Committee, having raised 40,000*l.* by subscription, had pledged themselves to "adhere to Sir Christopher Wren's designs," and appointed Mr. Burges to carry out the work. Mr Burges, said his opponents, is a man of genius, but he wants to carry out a plan of ornamentation which Sir C. Wren never thought of, and which, it is asserted by the Fine Arts Committee of the Executive Committee—a body which includes Mr. Fergusson—will cost 400,000*l.* The Fine Arts Committee remonstrated. Their "protest," signed by Mr Fergusson, Mr Cavendish Bentinck, Mr Oldfield, and Mr Gambier Parry, was partly composed of a recital of facts, and partly of criticisms upon Mr. Burges's design based on the facts so recited. They alleged the pledge which was given by the Executive Committee when it took office, that it would scrupulously keep sacred and follow Sir Christopher Wren's intentions, mode of treatment, and, as far as they could be authenticated, his very designs; and that in the agreement with Mr Burges, the architect bound himself to show reverence to those intentions, and otherwise to follow "the style of architecture and decoration adopted by the best Italian architects and artists of the sixteenth century." They then gave the details of a vote condemnatory of Mr. Burges's model, carried by a majority of one in a Fine Arts Committee, that majority consisting of themselves: and of its reversal, by ten to four, in the larger Executive Committee, after a proposal to invoke the collective opinion of the Royal Academy had been declined. The Executive Committee upon this dissolved the Fine Arts Committee, and Mr Burges was authorised to proceed. The newspapers took up the quarrel on both sides, and produced a large mass of controversial literature on the subject. The *Saturday Review* warmly espoused Mr Burges's cause. "Before he could lay a stroke of colour upon his model," it said, "the artist had to make his choice between two systems of ornamentation. One, that of merely tinting and touching up the structure, with here and there, it might be, a specific decoration inserted, while the Portland stone of which the Cathedral is constructed would still be left to contribute the leading tone. The other, the adoption of full, entire, and decisive colour, applied by various processes and in different degrees, from mere material up to figure art, under such elastic conditions as the special design of every portion dictated. The question was, in short, whether the task was to complement or to supplement Wren's constructional work." Mr. Burges took the second course, wisely and boldly, said the *Saturday Review*: presumptuously and recklessly, argued the controversialists on the other side. We give the verdict of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, after the exhibition of Mr. Burges's model at the Royal Academy. "Wren's design is recklessly altered, not by decoration merely, but in important architectural features: permanence not potential but absolute is obviously sought, as though the architect incurred the full responsibility of the

future wantonly and with a light heart. One consideration might have modified the view of many, scarcely of ourselves. Had the scheme been a masterpiece of imaginative work, had it displayed great qualities of art in unity of conception, in perfect and harmonious continuity and rhythm of design, the question between the past and the present would have been at least open to discussion. Even then we should have preferred that the new conception should be fixed in some colossal model, and St. Paul's left permanently unmodified. This, however, is obviously not the case in the model exhibited. The weakness which must attend the initiatory efforts of a nascent or renascent art is glaringly apparent in the evidence of merely tentative effort, as though one part after another had been got through perfunctorily, and without impulse or inspiration, and in this our worst anticipations are realised."

The question was set at rest at a meeting of the Executive Committee on November 27, when the Dean of St. Paul's read the following resolutions adopted by the Chapter: "That, though the Dean and Chapter have given a general approval to the designs submitted by Mr. Burges, they think that, considering the divided state of opinion in the Executive Committee, and also in their own body, it is desirable to suspend for the present any attempt to proceed with the decoration of the Cathedral. They recommend that steps should be taken for rescinding the agreement with Messrs. Burges and Penrose, which has been found to be highly inconvenient in its working. They hope that the Committee, in dealing with Mr. Burges, will treat him with the liberality to which in their judgment his professional eminence and his services alike entitle him. That, subject to the expression of an adverse opinion in the Executive Committee, the Dean and Chapter deem it advisable to withdraw the permission given by them on July 21, that temporary experiments should be made on the walls of the Apse of the Cathedral, with a view to illustrate the effect of Mr. Burges's plans. That these resolutions be communicated by the Dean to the Executive Committee."

The *Times* after giving an account of this meeting, adds: "By a resolution of the Committee adopted in 1872, Mr. Burges still holds the nominal appointment of architect for the completion of the Cathedral, in conjunction with Mr. Penrose, the surveyor to the fabric. Mr. Burges's designs, however, are laid aside, and steps will be taken to cancel the legal agreement entered into with their author. The Committee, when this shall have been done, will be free to act as they think fit. They may seem to have come to a somewhat clouded conclusion, but the gist of the whole is that Mr. Burges's designs, and indeed the whole work, are laid on the shelf for the present. Meantime, the 40,000*l.* subscribed and still in hand will be at all events bearing interest."

SCIENCE.

THE forty-fourth annual meeting of the British Association was opened this year at Belfast, on August 19. Professor Tyndall delivered the address, which was a very eloquent and interesting one, and became memorable for its controversial results. For the Professor, instead of confining himself simply to a statement of scientific discoveries made or conclusions inductively arrived at, during the progress of research for the last twelve months, ventured on the mysterious ground of original causality, and expressed opinions in favour of materialism, which, with whatever qualifications he guarded them, still gave

serious alarm to the religious world, as seeming to betoken the atheistic leanings of modern science

Dr Tyndall's subject was the Atomic Theory. He dwelt first on the crude but far-seeing guesses of such men among the ancients as Democritus, Empedocles, and Lucretius at a scientific theory of the universe, and showed how they heralded the advance that was to be made in ages long subsequent to them, whereby domain after domain of phenomena would cease to be regarded as the results of capricious and anthropomorphic powers, and would be allowed to be under the rule of fixed laws. Then he touched on the scientific stagnation of the middle ages in Christendom, and the bitter persecution to which the forerunners of our present enlightenment were exposed. Through Copernicus, Galileo, Kepler, and Newton he passed on to Père Gassendi; and then came one of the most characteristic parts of his address—the digression on Bishop Butler, whom he made hold an imaginary discussion with a follower of the Lucretian philosophy. It is needless to say that the result of this dialogue is satisfactory to all parties, that if the Lucretian is shown to be too narrow in some of his views, yet the Bishop obtains his victory by arguments which, if they are not quite such as he would have used, have the greater merits of being offensive to no one, and of pointing directly to the amicable arrangement to which the address is meant to lead up. Then Darwin and Spencer came under review. These writers carried the lecturer to the extreme point of his advance. The former supplied him both with an account of the development of the physical nature of the higher forms of life and with an explanation of the cause of that development. What Darwin had done for physiology Spencer would do for psychology, by applying to the nervous system particularly the principles which his teacher had already enunciated for the physical system generally.

Adopting the conclusions of these writers, if only as provisional and imperfect solutions, at least, as so far true that they can only be supplanted by others framed on the same general lines, Professor Tyndall came face to face with the question with which he had in reality been dealing throughout. Are we still to leave to the domain of special creation the origin of life and consciousness? And here, he professed himself deserted by these his latest guides, and, facing the question, as it were alone, pronounced in favour of the theory that life arose from the automatic action of matter. "Abandoning all disguise," he said, "the confession I feel bound to make before you is that I prolong the vision backwards across the boundary of the experimental evidence, and discern in that matter which we in our ignorance, and notwithstanding our professed reverence for its Creator, have hitherto covered with opprobrium, the promise and potency of every form and quality of life." The boldness of this utterance was, however, speedily toned down, though rather in form than reality. Though the speaker would evidently cut off religious ideas from all contact with the external world, yet he would not banish religion from the human mind. On the contrary, he spoke of the "immoveable basis of the religious sentiment in the emotional nature of man," intimating that it might be made useful. "The lifting of the life is the essential point, and as long as dogmatism, fanaticism, and intolerance are kept out, various modes of leverage may be employed to raise life to a higher level. Science itself not unfrequently derives motive power from an ultra-scientific source." His peroration was as follows:—

"With more time, or greater strength and knowledge, what has been here said might have been better said, while worthy matters here omitted might

have received fit expression. But there would have been no maternal deviation from the views set forth. As regards myself, they are not the growth of a day; and as regards you, I thought you ought to know the environment, which, with or without your consent, is rapidly surrounding you, and in relation to which some adjustment on your part may be necessary. A hint of Hamlet's, however, teaches us all how the troubles of common life may be ended, and it is perfectly possible for you and me to purchase intellectual peace at the price of intellectual death. The world is not without refuges of this description, nor is it wanting in persons who seek their shelter and try to persuade others to do the same. I would exhort you to refuse such shelter, and to scorn such base repose—to accept, if the choice be forced upon you, commotion before stagnation, the leap of the torrent before the stillness of the swamp. In the one there is, at all events, life and, therefore, hope; in the other, none. I have touched on debateable questions, and led you over dangerous ground—and this partly with the view of telling you, and through you the world, that as regards these questions, science claims unrestricted right of search. It is not to the point to say that the views of Lucretius and Bruno, of Darwin and Spencer, may be wrong. I concede the possibility, deeming it indeed certain that these views will undergo modification. But the point is that, whether right or wrong, we claim the freedom to discuss them. The ground which they cover is scientific ground; and the right claimed is one made good through tribulation and anguish, inflicted and endured in darker times than ours, but resulting in the immortal victories which science has won for the human race. I would set forth equally the inexorable advance of man's understanding in the path of knowledge, and the unquenchable claims of his emotional nature which the understanding can never satisfy. The world embraces not only a Newton, but a Shakspeare—not only a Boyle, but a Raphael—not only a Kant, but a Beethoven—not only a Darwin, but a Carlyle. Not in each of these, but in all, is human nature whole. They are not opposed, but supplementary—not mutually exclusive, but reconcilable. And if, still unsatisfied, the human mind, with the yearning of a pilgrim for his distant home, will turn to the mystery from which it has emerged, seeking so to fashion it as to give unity to thought and faith, so long as this is done, not only without intolerance or bigotry of any kind, but with the enlightened recognition that ultimate fixity of conception is here unattainable, and that each succeeding age must be held free to fashion the mystery in accordance with its own needs—then, in opposition to all the restrictions of Materialism, I would affirm this to be a field for the noblest exercise of what, in contrast with the knowing faculties, may be called the creative faculties of man. Here, however, I must quit a theme too great for me to handle, but which will be handled by the loftiest minds ages after you and I, like streaks of morning cloud, shall have melted into the infinite azure of the past."

A great sensation was created at Belfast by the delivery of this address, and numerous attacks were directed against Professor Tyndall, both from the local pulpits and from the public press at large. To these attacks he somewhat apologetically adverted soon afterwards, on occasion of delivering a lecture at the Free Trade Hall, Manchester, when he exhibited some beautiful experiments showing the structural power of molecular forces. "We are surrounded," he said, "by wonders and mysteries everywhere." He had, not sometimes, but often in the spring time, watched the advance of the sprouting leaves, and of the grass, and of the flowers, and observed the general joy of opening life in

nature; and he had asked himself this question, could it be that there was no being or thing in nature that knew more about these things than he did? Did he in his ignorance represent the highest knowledge of these things existing in this universe? The man who put that question fairly to himself, if he was not a shallow man, if he was a man capable of being penetrated by profound thought, would never answer the question by professing that creed of Atheism which had been so lightly attributed to him. (This statement was received with loud cheers, which were again and again renewed.) Everywhere throughout our planet we noticed this tendency of the ultimate particles of matter to run into symmetric forms, the very molecules appeared inspired with a desire for union and growth, and the question of questions at the present day was—and it was one he feared which would not be solved in our day, but would continue to agitate and occupy thinking minds after we had departed—the question was, how far does this wondrous display of molecular force extend? Does it give us the movement of the sap of trees? He replied with confidence, assuredly it does. Does it give us the beating of our own breasts, the warmth of our own bodies, the circulation of our blood, and all that thereon depends? This was a point on which he offered no opinion that night. He had brought them to the edge of the battle-field, into which he did not intend to enter, and from which he had barely escaped, somewhat bespattered and begrimed, but without much loss of hope. It now only remained for him not to enter this battle-field, but to point out to them the position of the contending hosts. They could pass on by almost imperceptible gradations from this wonderful display of force that he had been able to make manifest to their eyes that night to the lowest forms of vegetable life. They passed from them to other forms higher, and so up to the highest. He had spoken of contending hosts, and their position was this. One class of thinkers supposed that all the actions of crystals that they had seen formed before them, the passage from the crystalline action to the lowest forms of vegetable life, and from them to higher forms still foreign to the highest, were the growth of a single natural process. They grasped, as it were, this act of life, this development of life, as an indissolubly connected whole, one great organic growth from the beginning. Others again said that it is not possible to pass from inorganic, as we are pleased to call it—for it was only human language we could use—from the inorganic to the organic without a distinct creative act, and so with regard to the forms that are observed in the fossil world. These forms, it was alleged, or considered, also required for their introduction special creative acts. There, then, were two perfectly distinct positions, and if they looked abroad they would find men of equal earnestness and equal intelligence ranging themselves on two opposite sides in relation to this question. Which were right and which were wrong was, he submitted, a question for grave consideration, and not for abuse and hard names.

Of the various answers given to Professor Tyndall's address, the most noticeable is that of Mr. Pritchard, the Professor of Astronomy at Cambridge, delivered at the Brighton Church Congress in October. Professor Pritchard said the time had come when the relations between science and religion were well understood, and might be clearly stated. According to the latest and most authoritative statement of the new philosophy, it asserted with considerable confidence—1. That the potential of all things terrestrial, including man, with all his powers, intellectual and moral, the potential of their very selves, for instance, in that assembly, was originally contained in the atoms of one of those nebulous

patches of light, thousands of which were brought within the ken of the modern telescope. How that potential got there was not stated. 2. That the present state of things had been brought about, not by the subsequent intervention of any supreme cause or governor of all things, but through the natural interaction of these atoms or atomic forces. Combinations and recombinations throughout unnumbered ages have ensued, and the fittest had survived. Of living organisms the powers had descended by inheritance, had then been modified by their environments, and again the fittest had survived. That succinctly was said to be the origin of man by evolution. 3. It was asserted that throughout Nature there were no certain tokens of design, wonderful adaptations were by no means denied, but they were referred to the influence of successive environments and natural selection. That philosophy asserted that if there were an intelligent author of Nature, an absolute Supreme, He was to us unknowable. Such, so far as he could understand it, were said to be the legitimate philosophical conclusions of the most complete and refined science of the day. If that were the ultimate result of the latest combinations of the atoms, and if that were all, then, so far as man was concerned, this ultimate result was human life without an adequate motive, affections with no object sufficient to fill them, hopes of immortality never to be realised, aspirations after God and godliness never to be attained. Thus myriads of myriads of other nebulae might still be the potentials of delusions, and their outcomes the kingdom of despair. After speaking of Newton, Herschel, and Faraday as believers in Divine causation, he said that if the creation by evolution were a very strongly presumable fact, he should logically accept it. With his own hands, a quarter of a century ago, he obtained, and any chemist might have obtained, all the elements which he found in an egg and in grains of wheat, out of a piece of granite and from the air which surrounded it, element for element. It had been one of the most astonishing and unexpected results of modern science that we could unmistakably trace those very elements also in the stars, and partly also in the nebulae, perhaps all of them when our instruments were improved. But no chemist, with all his wonderful art, had ever yet witnessed the evolution of a living thing from those lifeless molecules of matter and force, nor had any one ever discovered the link between the man and the monkey. From what he knew through his own speciality, both from geometry and experiment, of the structure of lenses and the human eye, he did not believe that any amount of evolution, extending through any amount of time consistent with the requirements of our astronomical knowledge, could have issued in the production of that most beautiful and complicated instrument, the human eye. The most perfect, and, at the same time, the most difficult optical contrivance known was the powerful achromatic object-glass of a microscope, its structure was the long unhopèd-for result of the ingenuity of many powerful minds, yet in complexity and in perfection it fell infinitely below the structure of the eye. Disarrange any one of the curvatures of the many surfaces, or distances, or densities of the latter—or worse, disarrange its incomprehensible self-adaptive power, the like of which was possessed by the handiwork of nothing human—and all the opticians in the world could not tell you what was the correlative alteration necessary to repair it, and, still less, to improve it, as natural selection was presumed to imply. But he did not rest his objections to the theory of the universal prevalence of creation by natural selection, without some intervention of an external intelligent will, solely on any special knowledge of the structure of the human eye. Above and beyond all other similar arguments—and there

were many such—Mr. Wallace, who had an equal claim with Mr. Darwin in the origination of the theory of evolution, had made an express exception in the case of man. For the creation of man, as he was, postulated the necessity of the intervention of an external Will. He commended Mr. Wallace's essay to their special attention. Among other arguments, he observed that the lowest types of savages were in possession of a brain and of capacities far beyond any use to which they could apply them in their present condition, and therefore they could not have been evolved from the mere necessities of their environments. Prolepsis, anticipation, he might add, involves intentions and will. For his own part, he would carry Mr. Wallace's remark upon savages much further, and apply it to ourselves. We, too, possessed powers and capacities immeasurably beyond the necessities of any merely transitory life. There stirred within us yearnings irrepressible, longings unutterable, a curiosity unsatisfied and insatiable by aught we saw. These appetites, passions, and affections came to us, not as Socrates and Plato supposed, nor as our great poet sung, from the dim recollection of some former state of our being, still less from the delusive inheritance of our progenitors, they were the indications of something within us, akin to something immeasurably beyond us, tokens of something attainable, yet not hitherto attained, signs of a potential fellowship with spirits nobler and more glorious than our own, they were the title deeds of our presumptive fellowship to some brighter world than any that had yet been formed. But our knowledge of these atomic forces, so far as it at present extends, did not leave us in serious doubt as to their origin, for there was a very strong presumptive evidence, drawn from the results of the most modern scientific investigation, that they were neither eternal nor the products of evolution. No philosopher of recent times was better acquainted than Sir J. Herschel with the interior mechanism of nature. From his contemplation of the remarkably constant, definite, and restricted, yet various and powerful interactions of these elementary molecules, he was forced to the conviction that they possessed "all the characteristics of manufactured articles." The expression was memorable, accurate, and graphic; it might become one of the everlasting possessions of mankind. Professor Maxwell, a man whose mind had been trained by the mental discipline of the same noble university, arrived at the same conclusion; but as his knowledge exceeded that of Herschel on this point, so he went further in the same direction of thought. "No theory of evolution," he says, "can be formed to account for the similarity of the molecules throughout all time, and throughout the whole region of the stellar universe; for evolution necessarily implies continuous change, and the molecule is incapable of growth or decay, of generation or destruction." "None of the processes of Nature, since the time when Nature began, have produced the slightest difference in the properties of any molecule. On the other hand, the exact equality of each molecule to all others of the same kind precludes the idea of its being eternal and self-existent. We have reached the utmost limit of our thinking faculties when we have admitted that because matter cannot be eternal and self-existent it must have been created." "These molecules," he added, "continue this day as they were created, perfect in number, and measure, and weight; and from the ineffaceable characters impressed on them we may learn that those aspirations after truth in statement and justice in action, which we reckon among our noblest attributes as men, are ours because they are the essential constituents of the image of Him who in the beginning created not only the heaven and the earth, but the materials of which heaven and earth consist." That is the true

outcome of the deepest, the most exact, and the most recent science of our age. A grander utterance has not come from the mind of a philosopher since the days when Newton concluded his "*Principia*" by his immortal *scholium* on the majestic personality of the Creator and Lord of the universe.

Of actual scientific discoveries during the past year, the British Association assembled at Belfast had no important announcement to make. But during 1874 two events took place, in the department of Astronomy, which were of the highest interest. These were, the appearance of "Coggia's Comet" in April—July, and the Transit of the planet Venus across the sun's disc on December 9.

The comet that appeared in 1874 was first seen in telescopes of Marseilles Observatory, by M. Coggia, on April 17. It seemed then a mere cloudy speck, scarcely perceptible upon the midnight sky. By the middle of June it came within the range of unassisted vision, veering towards the constellation of the Camelopard, and in aspect much like one of the faintest of those stars. By the end of the first week in July it was a bright object, with a brilliant tail, one third of the way up above the northern horizon. Its great peculiarity was the appearance of two wing-like envelopes on each side of the central bright envelope. Eight days afterwards, "it had plunged into the solar blaze, leaving only its tail streaming up into sight towards the stars of the Great Bear; and was hastening on towards its vanishing point in the southern constellation of the Chameleon, where it was to disappear from human observation, some time in the month of September. . . . As the comet made this brilliant descent through the twilight of the summer sky, it moved with ever-increasing impetuosity towards its final plunge into the glare of the horizon. In twenty days from June 25 it drifted through twenty-five degrees of the sky, and in the next ten days it accomplished an arc of fifty degrees; that is, a span of the heavens as wide again. On one clear night in the middle of July it was blazing bright and high in the north-western twilight. Then a few cloudy nights followed, and held the comet concealed in their screens of mist, and when these clouds were withdrawn from the sky, it was gone. At the time it thus dropped through the portals of the horizon, it was about 30,000,000 miles from the earth, and in round numbers about as far again from the sun—that is, it was one-third of the way on towards the sun when it turned its back upon the earth. The comet swept down from north to south almost along the line of a meridian, curving out the convexity of its sweep to the earth." The invention of the spectro-scope since Donati's comet of 1858 gave great advantages to observation on the present occasion. Mr Lockyer used it with the "large aperture of Mr. Newall's telescope, and he found that the notion that some of the rays of the comet are sent either from solid particles, or from vapour in a state of very high condensation, is amply confirmed, and also that there is no less clear evidence that other portions of the comet's light issue from the vapour shining by its own inherent right. The light coming from the more dense constituents, and therefore giving a continuous coloured spectrum, was, however, deficient in blue rays, and was most probably emitted by material substance at the low, red and yellowish, stages of incandescence. In describing his spectroscopic examination Mr. Lockyer says 'The luminous fan also gave a continuous spectrum but little inferior in brilliancy to that of the nucleus itself: while over this, and even from the dark space behind the nucleus, were distinguishable the spectrum of *bands*, indicating the presence of rare vapour of some kind; while the continuous spectrum of the nucleus and fan might be referred to the presence of either denser vapour or of solid particles?'

"Other observations, by Padre Secchi at Rome, substantially confirm this conclusion, and seem to point to either carbon, or an oxide of carbon, as the source of the bright luminous bands—a 'lead' which has been vivaciously followed up by the Abbé Moigno, when he asks whether this comet may not be '*un gigantesque diamant volatilisé*'?"

"Mr. Lockyer described the head of the comet as a fan-shaped projection of light, with ear-like appendages at each side, which sympathetically complemented each other at every change either of form or luminosity, and which had all the appearance of being parts of two eccentrically arranged envelopes. The straight lines, or radial borders, of the fan, were at times altogether obliterated by streams of light passing down backwards into the tail. Immediately behind the nucleus there was the usual gap, or angular region of deep darkness, which gradually passed in the more remote parts of the tail into a uniformly-spread luminous haze. Mr. Lockyer read these configurations as strongly suggesting *the notion of a meteor wheel*, in which the regions of greatest brightness were caused by the different coils, cutting, or appearing to cut, each other, and so in those parts leading to compression or condensation and frequent collisions of the luminous particles."—Edin. Review, Oct., 1871.

Few subjects of a scientific kind have excited so much general interest and attention beforehand as did that of the Transit of Venus. For a year previously, a staff of astronomers and photographers, composed of officers of the Naval and Military services, and sundry civilians, worked at the Royal Observatory, under the guidance of Sir George Airy and his assistants, practising themselves in the complicated observations and other processes which would be required of them when the time came. The question which the phenomenon itself was expected to elucidate was that of the sun's distance from the earth,—or, to speak more technically, its "equatorial horizontal parallax," i.e., "the greatest angle which would be subtended by the earth's equatorial radius to an observer at the distance of the sun's centre, whatever that distance may be taken to be. The most trustworthy determinations gave an average value of about 8.92 sec. for the parallactic angle, corresponding to some 91,480,000 miles for the sun's distance—with an uncertainty of .03 sec., or, in round numbers, 300,000 miles. The Transit of Venus may not be the means of altering this quantity (8.92 sec.) by any large amount, but it will be of the utmost utility as a crucial test of previous results, being the only direct geometrical solution of the problem. Taking into account all probable errors of longitude, local time, photographic and contact observations, it may be assumed, on a by no means sanguine estimate, that the existing uncertainty will be reduced to one-third of its present amount, or to .01 sec., but it is far from unlikely that the probable residual error will be no more than one-half of the latter quantity—that is to say, our distance from the sun will probably have been ascertained within 50,000 miles, or about 1-1800th part of its whole amount. Besides the higher scientific advantages of such a result, its direct practical uses are not insignificant; an accurate knowledge of the sun's distance being essential for the perfecting of the lunar and planetary tables, and therefore of the science of navigation, also for finding the true longitudes of places on the earth's surface, which depend on the accuracy of the Lunar Theory. The astronomical phenomenon had not been seen since 1769. The planet Venus, being distant from the sun 66,000,000 miles—above two-thirds of the earth's probable distance from the sun—passes around the sun by an interior orbit within the orbit described around the sun by our own planet. It happens twice in a hundred years, but at an interval of eight

years only, that Venus comes directly between us and the sun. The visible effect to spectators in the daytime who can see the sun is that a small black spot, which is the actual body of that planet, seems to travel slowly across the sun's apparent disc. Its size relatively to that of the sun's apparent disc is that of a pea on a cheese-plate.

America, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and Holland joined in the preparations for observation. The English stations were nine in number, viz., two in Egypt, three in the Sandwich Islands, one at Rodriguez Island, one in New Zealand, and two in Kerguelen's Land. Lord Lindsay also set up a station, at his own private cost, in Mauritius. Within a few hours of the event, telegrams poured in from all quarters of the globe, announcing success or failure. For the most part, the results were very satisfactory. The first telegram announced success at Roorkee, a station at the foot of the Himalayas, not originally included in the English programme, but suggested by Colonel Tennant, who took the supervision of it, and brought to bear an instrumental apparatus of singular completeness and precision. Roorkee was, moreover, important as being the only English northern station at which the entire transit was visible.

Telegrams from Calcutta announced the observations taken there to have been excellent; but at Madras satisfactory observations were almost impossible, the endeavours being frustrated by cloudy weather.

The French and Americans, who (astronomically speaking) occupied China and Japan, had to report a clear view at Yokohama and Iliogo; success at Nagasaki, intercepting clouds at Shanghai.

Later telegrams from Australia announced that the observations at Sydney had proved satisfactory, but that the American expedition in Tasmania experienced very unfavourable weather. From Berlin it was announced that the observations of the German expedition at Tschifu, in North-Eastern China, were quite satisfactory. The observations of the contacts, the heliometer measurements, and the photographs succeeded splendidly. At the Russian station of Nertschinsk, three contacts, eight diameters, and thirty instances of the heliometer were measured. At Teheran the observations were most successful. At Thebes, in Egypt, the weather was favourable, and important observations were taken. At Knachta and Posseet photographs were taken.

Wladistock, an important station in Siberia, had to report failure. In fact, cloud and fog baffled almost all the Siberian observations, and this was a serious drawback.

What the real gain to science has been will not be known for some time to come. The astronomers having done their share of the work, the data are handed over to computers, persons whose office it is merely to calculate, who are perfectly ignorant of theoretical astronomy, and probably know scarcely the elements of algebra and trigonometry, their business being simply to substitute for the formulæ of the astronomer, the actual numerical values of the quantities.

We conclude our Science Review with an Archaeological notice of interest.

An address was delivered before the Society of Biblical Archæology, on July 7, by Mr. George Smith, of the British Museum, on the subject of his recent excavations at the site of Nineveh. The paper opened with a slight sketch of previous excavations at Nineveh, including Mr. George Smith's own of last year. In November last he again started for the East, under the auspices of the trustees of the British Museum, and on January 1, the day of the publication of Schliemann's "Antiquities of Troy," with its absorbing revelations of what had been turned up from the Hissarlik mounds at the other

extremity of Western Asia, began digging two or three hours after his arrival at Mosul, opposite which town, on the other bank of the Tigris, girdled by a wall eight miles or so in circumference, Nineveh once was. After referring to some of the fragments of historical tablets discovered in the palace of Sennacherib, Mr. Smith said he was confirmed in his first suggestion that Izdubar is the same as the Nimrod of the Bible. He believed that the passage about Nimrod in Genesis is historical, and is to be understood in its natural sense. The hero whom he provisionally named Izdubar corresponds in period, character, and exploits with Nimrod; and when we found the phonetic reading of his name he believed this identity would be proved. The stories of Izdubar correspond also with some ancient traditions respecting Nimrod, and from the form of prayer to him he appeared to have been deified after his death. Mr. Smith also found his name on a second tablet, which is part of a series on witchcraft, he is there supposed to watch over the country. The opening paragraph of the legends of Izdubar states that his exploits took place after the drying up of the water, probably referring to the flood; it reads, "When the drying up of the waters, they saw," and so on. Mr. Smith urged that further work ought to be done.—1 The great library in the palace of Sennacherib ought to be completely excavated and all its treasures recovered. He calculated that there must be 20,000 fragments of cuneiform tablets still buried there, and it would require three years' work and the expenditure of 5,000*l* to complete the excavation. 2 The centre and eastern portion of the mound of Kouyunjik requires to be further investigated. The relics here are of an earlier age than those from the palaces of Sennacherib and Assur-bani-pal, and will throw light on the more ancient period of Assyrian history. 3 There should be as complete an examination as possible of the mound of Nebbi Yunus. 4. The ruins of the wall and body of the city should be investigated. 5. Examination should be made round the wall for Assyrian tombs, particularly for royal tombs, as with reference to them we are at present totally ignorant of Assyrian customs. There are numerous other sites in the country which would repay excavation.

PART II

CHRONICLE

OF REMARKABLE OCCURRENCES

IN 1874.

JANUARY.

1. DEATH BY DROWNING. — The well-known oarsman, James Lally, was drowned at two o'clock this morning, whilst attempting to swim across the river Blyth, twelve miles north of Newcastle-on-Tyne. He will be chiefly remembered as having beaten Sadler at the Tyne Regatta of 1872, but he had at one time been regarded by many as the coming champion.

— EXPLOSION AT FAVERSHAM.—An explosion took place at the works recently erected at Oare, near Faversham, for the manufacture of Punshon's patent controllable cotton gunpowder. The accident occurred in the graining-house. The only person in the building at the time was a man named Hickford, who was very seriously injured. The building itself was demolished, and the granulating machine shattered to atoms. A remarkable circumstance, and one which shows the great strength of this new explosive, is the fact that there was no more than five pounds of gun-cotton in the machine when it exploded.

6. ASSAULT ON THE DUKE OF CAMBRIDGE.—Soon after one o'clock this afternoon, as the Duke was walking in Pall Mall, he was accosted by a retired half-pay officer, Captain Maunsell, of the 82nd Foot, with the words "Your Royal Highness has done me a grievous wrong." Before he could answer, Captain Maunsell stepped back, ran at the Duke and hit him as hard as he could on the chest with his clenched fist twice. He was immediately taken into custody, and on being brought before the magistrate, read a statement, in which he detailed the events of his military career, and the injustice with which he considered himself to have been treated with regard to promotion. He had written several letters

to the Commander-in-Chief, asserting his claims, but meeting with no redress, he had committed this assault for the express purpose of being arrested, and thus gaining an opportunity to make his case known. "It is needless for me to say," he added, "that I had no malice towards the Commander-in-Chief, and in my last letter to His Royal Highness this feeling is expressed. I plead for no mitigated sentence. I ask only that it may not be believed that any malicious feeling prompted the act for which I stand here. No man in England would hurt the Duke of Cambridge. I myself would cheerfully shed my blood for any member of the Royal Family, and this has long been my feeling. I cannot recall the past; I can only say that I am deeply sorry for what has happened." The captain was sentenced to one month's imprisonment without hard labour.

— **DEATH FROM THE BITE OF A RAT.**—As an elderly gentleman named Samuel Rowe was superintending the removal of some hay from a stack on his premises, near Barnstaple, a rat ran out and was laid hold of by him. The animal turned and bit him. Mortification ensued, and in a few hours Mr. Rowe died. He was a rather nervous man, but was otherwise quite healthy. It was considered unnecessary to hold an inquest.

7. **FALL OF A TUNNEL.**—The tunnel between Merthyr and Abernant Stations, on the Vale of Neath section of the Great Western Railway, fell in during last night as a goods train was passing through, almost burying the engine. The driver and stoker, by jumping off, fortunately avoided injury. For some years past it has been known that coal-workings were approaching very near the tunnel, and fears have frequently been expressed of a catastrophe. The colliers working in their stalls could hear all the trains passing over their heads, and the men in the tunnel could hear the colliers picking at the coal-headings underneath their feet.

8. **A TERRIBLE BOILER EXPLOSION** took place this afternoon at the Atlas Ironworks, Bolton, belonging to Mr. Alderman Thomas Walmsley, resulting in the deaths of five persons and serious injuries to about twenty others. Nothing is known as to the cause of the catastrophe. The boiler, which was encased in brickwork nine inches in thickness, burst with a report which was heard over the entire town, and caused the utmost consternation. One half of the roof of the shed was lifted bodily into the air, when it fell with a tremendous crash, carrying with it the pipes connecting the whole of the boilers with the machinery, as well as several of the supporting columns, iron girders, beams, &c. One pair of furnaces, the shears, and mortar mill, were completely demolished, while a good deal of injury was done to other parts of the machinery. A gap of some eight or ten yards wide was made in the boundary wall, and bricks and slates were hurled in clouds over and beyond the works. The top end of the boiler, weighing about thirty hundred-weight, was carried over the shed a distance of about a hundred

and fifty yards, and deposited near to Messrs. Howarth and Cryer's foundry, while other fragments were hurled into the foundry yard itself. A youth named Thomas Barlow attempted to run when he heard the explosion; but ere he had gone many yards one of the boiler plates, riven and twisted, caught him, decapitating him, and cutting off both arms and one leg. The head and dismembered limbs were afterwards found lying several yards from the trunk. Other portions of the boiler, weighing several hundred-weight, were projected right over the railway, a distance of 200 yards. When the atmosphere had become cleared, the dead and injured were found lying in all directions. From beneath the *débris* three men and a boy were taken out dead. They had all been fearfully crushed and scalded. Nearly twenty persons were found to be more or less injured. The damage is roughly estimated at about 5,000*l*.

9. THE HOLBORN STATUE TO THE PRINCE CONSORT.—The ceremony of unveiling this statue, which stands at the termination of the Holborn Viaduct, was performed by the Lady Mayoress, in the presence of the Prince of Wales, the Duke of Cambridge, the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Councilmen of the City of London. The statue, which was presented to the Corporation by a wealthy gentleman of the City, is in bronze, somewhat over life-size. The Prince is represented in the dress of a field marshal, and in the act of returning a salute. The pedestal is slightly under fifteen feet high, in granite, and composed of stones weighing from two to ten tons each. In the sides are two bassi reliev; the one represents the first public act of His Royal Highness within the City, viz., the Prince laying the first stone of the Royal Exchange, 1842; the other represents Britannia distributing awards to the successful competitors in the Exhibition of All Nations, 1851. At each end of the pedestal is a figure—the one, "Peace," holds in her right hand a cornucopia and in her left a palm branch; the other, "History," is recording events of the Prince's life in a book, on the corners of which are the dates of the two great Exhibitions, 1851 and 1862. The sculptor of the whole work is Mr. Charles Bacon, of Sloane Street.

10. FATAL RAILWAY ACCIDENT.—Shortly after seven P.M. the express train from Edinburgh, travelling at its ordinary speed of between thirty and forty miles an hour, dashed into a market train from Boston, which had arrived at Barkstone Junction a few minutes earlier. The pointsman in charge at the junction having received at 7.10 P.M. the usual signal from the nearest northern block station that the Scotch express was approaching, had already lowered his signals to allow this train to pass, when he was alarmed at hearing the driver of the Boston market train putting on steam and moving towards the main line. He immediately ran out of his signal-box with a red lamp signal in his hand, and waving it, signalled the driver to go back. The driver instantly shut off his steam and endeavoured to reverse his engine, but without effect, and before he could give any backward motion to his train the

Scotch express struck the Boston train near its centre. The rear carriages and brake-van of the latter were thrown over the adjacent embankment, and the engine and tender of the express were thrown off the rails on to the permanent way. None of the passengers in the express suffered anything beyond a violent shock, but Arthur Clayburn, the fireman, was so severely scalded that he died next morning. The driver also sustained serious injury. A passenger in the Boston train was killed, and several other persons were injured.

15. MOB ON THE TICHBORNE TRIAL.—The excitement of the rabble in favour of the notorious Tichborne claimant became rather troublesome when Mr. Hawkins, the counsel for the prosecution, commenced his reply to Dr. Kenealy. As the learned Q.C. and Serjeant Parry left the Court, they were assailed by hisses and groans from the large crowd assembled outside. Inspector Denning tried to keep the mob back, but his efforts were useless. However, in a minute or so, another inspector and several constables ran across from the judges' private entrance to the Court of Queen's Bench, where they were on duty, and formed a cordon behind the learned counsel. The mob followed the police along Great George Street, where the crowd gained considerable accessions. At one moment the police faced round, as if forcibly to keep the people back, but presently they went on again, keeping close to Mr. Hawkins and Serjeant Parry. There was much excitement in the street, and the traffic of vehicles was temporarily suspended. When near Storey's Gate, the entrance to St. James's Park, Mr. Denning sent some constables forward with orders to close the gates when the learned gentlemen passed into the park. The small gates used by pedestrians were at once closed, but it was found impossible to shut those upon the carriage way. The police, however, stood in line across the gateways and prevented the mob passing through. Mr. Hawkins and Serjeant Parry had in the meantime got safely into the park and proceeded homeward. Similar scenes were repeated two or three days, but the police were on the alert to maintain order.

— LADY BURDETT-COUTTS AT EDINBURGH.—The Lord Provost and Town Council of Edinburgh presented this charitable lady with the freedom of their city on this day. The ceremony took place in the Music Hall, which was decorated for the occasion with hangings of red cloth, a range of greenhouse plants, the union jack at each end, and a trophy of flags above the portrait of her great-grandfather, a Coutts who was Lord Provost of Edinburgh in 1742. The proceedings were simply conducted in the ordinary form. The Lord Provost first addressed the company, reminding them of former occasions upon which the honours of the city had been conferred upon famous persons—Ben Jonson, when he visited Drummond at Hawthornden; more recently, Sir Walter Scott, Mr. Disraeli, Mr. Bright, Sir James Simpson, Lord Napier of Magdala, Charles Dickens, Lord Macaulay, Dr. Livingstone, and the artist,

David Roberts. He observed that the same compliment was bestowed on Mr. Thomas Coutts, the London banker, her Ladyship's grandfather, in 1813; and he described her own claims to public esteem, commending her exemplary beneficence and zeal for the relief of human suffering; while her efforts to prevent cruelty to dumb animals were likewise not forgotten. The Town Clerk read the Burgess ticket, with the minutes of the Town Council, voting her the freedom of the city. This was presented to her Ladyship by the Lord Provost with some further appropriate observations. Lady Burdett-Coutts made a graceful, modest, and decided little speech in reply, expressing her sincere thanks. The Lord Provost then called upon the whole company to stand up and to give "three cheers for the youngest burgess of Edinburgh."

— FIRE IN PORTSMOUTH DOCKYARD.—A serious fire broke out this afternoon in a sea storehouse in this dockyard. About a quarter past twelve smoke was seen issuing from three of the upper windows. An alarm was raised, and a fire was discovered, which (as the material was dry, and there was a considerable draught) was spreading with alarming rapidity. The men remaining in the yard were speedily at the fire-stations, and a signal having been hoisted and guns fired from the "Duke of Wellington," strong reinforcements in a short time arrived from the other vessels near. The fire brigade of the Metropolitan Police also got their engines at work. In twelve minutes steam was got up in one of the engines; and, after some little delay, 1,000 gallons of water per minute were being thrown on the burning building. Parties were also despatched from the various regiments in garrison; but, notwithstanding every exertion, it was four o'clock before the flames could be extinguished. By this time the building was almost entirely gutted, and several thousand pounds worth of property had been destroyed, while much other valuable material had been injured either by water or hasty removal.

17. DEATH OF THE SIAMESE TWINS.—These remarkable twins, who were well known as a "sight" in London some years ago, have just died at their home in North Carolina. They were born in Siam, of Chinese parents, in 1811, and were therefore sixty-three years of age at the time of their death. From birth their bodies were united in a singular manner by a band of flesh, stretching from the end of one breast-bone to the same place in the opposite twin.

At first this connecting band seemed to have united them face to face, but constant traction had so changed its direction, that they stood partially side by side. Its length was about two inches; below, nearly four; from above, downwards, it measured three inches; and its greatest thickness was one and a half inch. It was covered with skin, and when the centre was touched, both felt it; but on touching either side of the median line, only the nearest individual was sensible of it. The connection between the Siamese twins presented many interesting points in regard to physiology and pathology; for although they formed two perfectly distinct

beings, they appeared most frequently to think, act, and move as one individual. The twins were purchased of their mother at Meklong, a city of Siam, and were taken to America by Capt. Comm and Mr. Hunter in 1820. After realising a competence by the exhibition of themselves in the various countries of Europe, the Siamese twins settled in one of the Southern States of America, where they were married to two sisters, and had offspring. Owing to domestic quarrels, however, two houses were found necessary, each living with his wife a week at a time alternately. They were, it is asserted, ruined by the disastrous civil war in America, and in 1869 reappeared in Europe for exhibition. In anticipation of the probable death of one of them before the other, it was then proposed to separate them by dividing the ligature which connected their bodies. The matter formed the subject of much discussion among eminent surgical authorities in this country and in France, and various opinions were expressed as to the probability of the operation being performed without endangering the life of the twins. The proposal was ultimately rejected, and Chang and Eng returned, undivided, to North Carolina, to end their days in peace.

The American papers give the following account of their last days :—"Some time after taking up their abode in Mount Airy, the twins purchased a second plantation about two miles from the first, and erected a dwelling upon it, to which Eng removed his family, Chang's family remaining at the old homestead. It was their custom, and the plan was never departed from, to spend three days at each house. On the Thursday previous to the death the brothers were at Chang's residence, and the evening of that day was the appointed time for a removal to Eng's dwelling. The day was cold, and Chang had been complaining for a couple of months past of being very ill. On Friday evening they retired to a small room by themselves, and went to bed, but Chang was very restless. Some time between midnight and daybreak they got up and sat by the fire. Again Eng protested, and said he wished to lie down, as he was sleepy. Chang stoutly refused, and replied that it hurt his breast to recline. After a while they retired to their bed, and Eng fell into a deep sleep. About four o'clock one of the sons came into the room, and, going to the bedside, discovered that his uncle was dead. Eng was awakened by the noise, and in the greatest alarm turned and looked upon the lifeless form beside him, and was seized with violent nervous paroxysms. No physicians were at hand, and it being three miles to the town of Mount Airy, some time necessarily elapsed before one could be summoned. A messenger was despatched to the village for Dr. Hollingsworth, and he sent his brother, also a physician, at once to the plantation, but before he arrived the vital spark had fled, and the Siamese twins were dead."

18. SHOCKING MURDER IN WILTSHIRE.—An old man, named Joseph Grimes, aged 77, who lived in a cottage by himself in a

lonely lane in the parish of Purton, near Swindon, has been barbarously murdered. A little girl going to the cottage this morning found the body of the old man lying in a pool of blood before the fireplace. She immediately gave an alarm. The police were sent for, and on examination it was found that the old man had been murdered by blows from a bill-hook, which was found in the room covered with blood and hair. It is conjectured that when attacked the murdered man was seated by the fireplace, and on rising to answer the intruder, received a terrible blow above the left ear, causing a wound eight inches in length. It is thought that he then fell to the ground, his head resting in his chair, a pool of blood being found in it. While in this position the murderer appears to have finished his dreadful deed by inflicting a similar blow about two inches below the first, taking off a piece of the ear, and cutting the chair. Death must have been almost instantaneous, the head being nearly cloven in two. The murderer then appears to have thrown aside his weapon and made off. The furniture of the cottage was undisturbed, 4*l.* in money and other valuables being untouched in a bureau. On the inquest which followed no evidence could be obtained as to the perpetration of the deed, and a verdict was returned of "Wilful murder against some person or persons unknown."

— A SEVERE GALE passed over Scotland to-day. In Perth great damage was done to roofs. In the Forth and even inside Granton Harbour numbers of vessels dragged their anchors. Five lighters moored in the west harbour broke loose, one of which drove on the inner side of the breakwater and stranded. In Glasgow considerable damage was done to house property and shipping. In the harbour several vessels broke from their moorings and dashed into each other, receiving much injury. Some narrow escapes are recorded. At Greenock a vessel broke loose, ran into two others, and finally stranded on a bank. Another vessel grounded on Cardross Point. Steamers were despatched at once to their assistance. At Dundee a schooner was driven ashore in the Tay, and the chimney of a house fell through the roof, wrecking much property.

22. FIRE AT WHITLEY ABBEY.—Shortly before midnight a destructive fire broke out at Whitley Abbey, a fine old building, the residence of Mr. E. Petre. A large party of guests were staying in the house at the time, and they had retired to rest when the alarm was given about eleven o'clock; all the occupants of the Abbey were instantly aroused, and some of them narrowly escaped with their lives. The children were hurriedly taken from their beds and carried to a place of safety. An invalid housekeeper, sleeping in one of the adjoining rooms, was carried from her bed, and two of the female servants leapt from windows on the first floor, and were caught on a mattress by the butler and other servants. Some of the male servants made their escape through the windows and along the roof of the building, being

compelled in their haste to leave the greater part of their clothes behind them. Most of the inmates of the Abbey were obliged to leave their rooms only partially dressed, and were afterwards observed upon the lawn wrapped in such articles of wearing apparel and bed-clothing as they were able in their hurried flight to take with them. A messenger was immediately despatched to Coventry on horseback, and the fire-engines were soon at work. Finding that it was impossible to save the western wing of the building, which was one blazing mass, the firemen directed their attention to cutting off the fire from the eastern part of the Abbey, which includes the drawing-room, library, and other rooms. After the firemen had been at work about an hour and a half or two hours, the progress of the fire was checked and confined to that part of the premises west of the billiard-room, adjoining the dining-room, which was very much damaged. The dining-room, Mr. Petre's private sitting and dressing-room, the house-keeper's room, the nursery, the servants' dining-hall and apartments, and all the bed-chambers in the western wing of the building were completely gutted, and most of the servants lost the greater part of their property. The fire was completely subdued before six o'clock in the morning. After Mr. Petre purchased the estate a few years back important improvements were made upon it, and the mansion was renovated and exquisitely fitted up and decorated. The Abbey is a place of considerable historical interest, and it is believed that Charles I. fixed his station at Whitley Hall when he unsuccessfully summoned the citizens of Coventry in 1643.

23. THE MARRIAGE OF THE DUKE OF EDINBURGH and the Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrovna, only daughter of the Emperor and Empress of Russia, was solemnised this day, at the Winter Palace, St. Petersburg, with the utmost pomp, and in accordance with the rites of the Orthodox and Anglican Churches respectively. Those who had been invited to be present assembled at half-past twelve o'clock at the palace. There were members of the Holy Synod, and of the high clergy; members of the Council of the Empire; senators and ambassadors; the members of the Corps Diplomatique, with the ladies of their families; general officers, officers of the guard, of the army and navy, and eminent Russian and foreign merchants of the first two guilds. The ladies wore the national costume; the men were in full uniform. The Queen of England was represented by Viscount Sydney and Lady Augusta Stanley. Shortly after one o'clock the marriage procession passed through the Salles des Armoiries, the bride leaning on the arm of the Duke of Edinburgh. On their arrival at the church the Duke and Grand Duchess took their places in front of the altar, where were standing the Metropolitan of St. Petersburg and the chief priests, attired in magnificent vestments. The Emperor and Empress were on the right of the altar, the Prince of Wales and the Russian Grand Dukes standing opposite. The most interesting parts of the ceremony were the handing of the

rings to the bride and bridegroom, the crowning of the Royal couple, and the procession of the newly-wedded pair, with the Metropolitan and clergy, Prince Arthur, and the Grand Dukes, round the analogion or lectern, the bride and bridegroom carrying lighted candles in their left hands. On the conclusion of the ceremony the bride and bridegroom were saluted by the Emperor and Empress most affectionately, and immediately all proceeded to the Salle d'Alexandrie, where the Protestant marriage was performed by the Very Rev. Dean Stanley, assisted by the Rev. A. Thompson and the Rev. Mr. Kingsford. The bride was given away by the Emperor, Prince Arthur being the best man. The Duke and the Grand Duchess used prayer-books which had been sent them by Queen Victoria, and the Grand Duchess carried a bouquet of myrtle sent also by the Queen from Osborne. Dean Stanley read a special prayer, composed by himself for the occasion. The singing of the Russian choir was magnificent. No instrumental music was performed at either service, in accordance with the rules of the Greek Church. The service was concluded at three o'clock, when the event was announced to the capital by a salute of 101 guns from the fortress, and to the inhabitants of Moscow by special telegram. The marriage register was signed by the Dean of Westminster, the Emperor and Empress, the Prince and Princess of Wales, Prince Arthur, the Imperial Crown Prince and Crown Princess of Germany, and by several of the Imperial family.

The prayer-book from which the Dean of Westminster read the first part of the service was the same volume which was used at the coronation of William IV., and in the after-part of the office Dean Stanley read from the prayer-book which was used at the marriages of George III., Princess Charlotte, the Duke of Gloucester, the Princess of Hesse, the Duke of Cambridge, William IV., the Duke of Kent, and the Prince of Wales. This historic volume is the property of Lady Mary Hamilton.

The wedding-day was celebrated in the principal towns of Great Britain by rejoicings of various kinds. In Edinburgh the illuminations were especially beautiful, and were crowned by a large bonfire on the summit of Arthur's Seat. In the metropolis the illuminations were scanty, the Londoners reserving themselves for the celebration of the public entry of the Royal pair.

24. TORPEDO EXPLOSION.—During the progress of some experiments with Whitehead's fish torpedo at the Royal Arsenal, Woolwich, a sad accident occurred, which caused the death of one man and inflicted serious injuries on four others. The experiments were being made on the banks of the canal in the Royal Arsenal, and one of these torpedoes was being prepared for lowering into the water on a trolley or truck in the shed constructed over the canal for that purpose, when suddenly the air vessel at the end of the machine gave way with a loud report, something like the discharge of a gun. The torpedo, which was about eight feet long and made of steel, was completely shattered. The largest

portion of the torpedo remained in the shed, together with most of the smaller pieces, but the end piece, which contained the motive power, about three feet in length, was blown a distance of forty-three yards into the timber-field adjoining. At the time of the accident there were nine men employed at the canal upon these experiments, which were under the direction of Mr. Thomas E. Miller, chief engineer, Royal Navy, a member of the Torpedo Committee. He was in the shed at the time. Edward Baker, who was killed on the spot, was engaged in turning the handle of the screw propeller, while William Fishenden was occupied in oiling the machine according to the orders of Mr. Miller, who was standing next to him. The other men were in various parts of the shed. Fishenden was severely injured, but Mr. Miller escaped unharmed; three others were more or less injured. The poor fellow who was killed was blown out into the road, his left leg being torn off and carried by part of the torpedo into the Royal Carriage Department timber-field, a distance of about fifty yards.

— FIRE AT SHORNCLIFFE CAMP.—At about six o'clock on the same evening a fire broke out in one of the large cavalry stables at Shorncliffe Camp, which was occupied by horses belonging to the detachment of the 7th Hussars. The man of the Fire Brigade who was on the look out immediately gave the alarm, and the firemaster, Mr. McGovern, with his men and engines, was soon upon the spot. An attempt was at once made to rescue the horses, but it was only partially successful, as they could not be induced to move, and out of about twenty-four which the stable contained fourteen perished in the flames. The supply of water was rather deficient, and had it not been for the great exertions of the firemaster and his men, assisted by men of the various corps in camp, the whole of the stables, which are built of wood, with slated roofs, would inevitably have gone; for the one which was burnt was in the very middle of them all. The whole of the horses were turned out of the adjoining stables, and many, breaking loose, rushed frantically away, some through Sandgate into Folkestone, and some in opposite directions. Fortunately the night was calm, and the iron fire screens afforded protection to the adjacent stables; but had one of the south-west gales which have of late been so prevalent at that time been blowing, the damage would have been far greater.

26. OPENING OF THE FRONT OF ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL.—The large plot of ground at the western end of St. Paul's Cathedral, hitherto enclosed by massive iron railings, was formally thrown open to the public this day, and at the same time an additional and long desired improvement in the width of the carriage way at that point was effected. The ground was bought by the Corporation of the Dean and Chapter for the sum of 15,000*l*. On the same day the corner stone of the new Choir School, in connection with the Cathedral, situated at the back of the Deanery, was laid by the Dean, in the presence of Bishop Claughton, and several of the Chapter.

— DEATH OF DR. LIVINGSTONE.—The following telegram has been received from Aden :—"Livingstone died of dysentery while travelling from Lake Bembe to Unyanyembe ; body embalmed and preserved in salt by his Nassick boys, who are conveying it to Zanzibar, *en route* for England."

Doubts were long entertained by our most eminent geographers of the authenticity of this melancholy intelligence, but it eventually proved to be but too true. A fuller account of the great traveller's end will be found in our obituary.

28. FATAL RAILWAY ACCIDENT.—Another disastrous result of railway mismanagement has occurred on the North British Railway, near Boness and Manuel Junction. The fast passenger train for the North, which is known as "The Flying Scotchman," or, as some call it, "The Scotch Madman," at full speed ran into a heavy mineral train, which stood across the line, in process of being shunted: the other train was known to be due. The collision was of the most terrible kind. It took place underneath a massive stone bridge, half of which was carried away, so that stones and masonry crushed those who escaped having carriages and engines hurled upon them. Of the foremost carriage (a third-class) every passenger was killed at once; fifteen dead bodies were taken up, the driver among others; he was scalded or burned, as well as mangled. Two other persons died shortly afterwards; many sustained severe if not fatal injuries, and two valuable horses were destroyed.

FEBRUARY.

The month opened amidst the excitement of a general election, the history of which belongs to another division of this work. We will, however, chronicle the chief local disasters and disturbances that occurred.

2. FALL OF A CROWDED ROOM DURING AN ELECTION MEETING.—A frightful accident occurred at a meeting at Bury in support of Mr. Phillips' election. The meeting was held in a room in the third storey of a quilting warehouse in Paradise Street, occupied by Messrs. Butler and Chadwick. When Mr. Phillips came to the warehouse the knowledge of his presence spread rapidly, and the promoters of the meeting found it impossible to keep the meeting within the limits originally intended; and the room soon became crammed with a very excited audience, principally Irish Catholics. Before Mr. Phillips arrived the crowd, among whom were a great many women, boys, and girls, had almost filled the room, and when he entered there was a great rush, and the room became closely packed with about 500 people. Mr. Butcher was in the chair, and when he saw the crowd he had some fears for the safety

of the building, and was about to propose an adjournment, but this was impracticable. He therefore at once addressed the meeting, intending as soon as possible to adjourn. He was speaking in eulogistic terms of Mr. Phillips' services, when the audience began cheering, clapping, and stamping, and suddenly the centre beam, 12 in. by 6 in., broke with a sudden snap, and a portion of the flooring, about 27 ft. by 20 ft., gave way, precipitating about 300 people on to the middle floor, which, being unable to bear the strain, gave way in its turn, and the whole mass of struggling human beings fell on to the ground floor, a distance of thirty feet. The scene was terrible in the extreme. A wide chasm separated those who had been left at either end of the room. For a moment a thick cloud of dust obscured the spectacle below, but the air was rent with shrieks. Those at the upper or platform end of the building were entirely cut off from all immediate means of exit, or from opportunity of rendering assistance, but Mr. Butcher, sliding down a gas-pipe, was quickly in the midst of the wreck. Fortunately, a considerable stock of quiltings in the basement floor had helped to break the fall of many of the people, and a large portion who had escaped without serious injury were able to crawl out without assistance. Portions of the beams and broken flooring, however, covered a large number. To get at these a number of men at once set to work. The work of carrying out the injured, dead, and dying, for which purpose the windows were broken in, occupied about three-quarters of an hour, and when the task was finished it was found that no less than eight persons had been killed, and two died of after; nearly fifty met with injuries of a more or less serious nature. Meantime fire-escapes and ladders were procured, to assist those who were cut off at the other end of the room. One after another they were brought through the windows, Mr. Phillips being about the last to leave the building. The portion of the audience at the staircase end of the room had, of course, a ready means of exit, and were able to effect their escape without assistance. There were several marvellous escapes. A boy had a portion of his clog torn off, and a policeman saved himself from falling into the chasm by clinging to a post near the wall. An examination of the fractured beam showed that it was not old. It was not broken short, but the fracture extended a considerable distance.

— ELECTION RIOTS.—Riotous proceedings took place in several boroughs, especially in the manufacturing counties, during the progress of the elections. At Hanley the mayor read the Riot Act, and telegraphed to Manchester for soldiers, on whose arrival shortly after midnight order was restored. At Wolverhampton, Wednesfield, and other towns, considerable damage was done by rioters armed with stones and timber torn from the fences; and serious personal injuries were caused during the contests between the mob and police. At Askeaton, county Limerick, in Ireland, the results were more fatal, a man named Donoghue being killed in a fray

with the police. A butcher, named Walsh, was also shot dead by an excited political opponent.

3. **COALPIT ON FIRE.**—The West Retford pit, at Tinsley Collieries, near Sheffield, which had been on fire for a whole fortnight, was extinguished to-day. As the seam is 1,000 yards distant from the bottom, the fire was reached with difficulty; 250 men were engaged in extinguishing it, and three of these men had a narrow escape from suffocation. The heat in the pit was fearful; so great, in fact, that the firemen had to be relieved every two minutes, and refreshed with ‘claret and water.’ The damage is estimated at 2,000*l*.

4. **RAILWAY COLLISIONS.**—A collision took place to-day on the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway near Bury Station. A passenger train ran into a goods train, but as the former was in the act of pulling up, the results were not so disastrous as they would have been if the train had been going at the usual speed. Ten persons were injured, and after being attended by medical men they were enabled either to resume their journey or to be removed to their residences.

6. A much more frightful collision took place two days later on the Great Western Railway at West Drayton. The broad gauge express from Exeter and the West of England, said to be the quickest train in the world, and popularly called “The Flying Dutchman,” runs from Swindon to London in an hour and thirty-seven minutes, without stopping. It left Exeter at 10.30 and was due in London at 2.45. On this occasion it had passed safely through West Drayton Station, but just beyond the bridge which crosses the railway on the London side it came into violent collision with a broad gauge goods train which was shunting in the foggy morning out of its way. The collision was frightful. The magnificent engine of the express was wrecked, and many of the carriages were thrown on the down line—some rolling down the embankment, others mingled in inextricable confusion with the luggage waggons. A moment after the accident, and before the signals could be set to block the line, the 2.15 fast train from London, which does not stop between London and Reading, came up at full pace, and dashed into the wrecked train. The engine of the 2.15 train was almost destroyed, and some of the carriages were displaced, but, singularly enough, none of the passengers appear to have been hurt. In the Exeter express the guard’s carriage was smashed, and the guard killed. No other death occurred, though a large number of persons were seriously injured.

7. On the following day a collision occurred on the incline near the Stratford Bridge Station, where the Great Eastern and the North London lines meet. The trains for Woolwich here slacken speed, and at the time in question the signals were put at danger to let a Midland goods train pass up the North London line. But, in consequence of the slippery state of the rails, the train journeying from Fenchurch Street to Woolwich could not readily be pulled

up, the result being that it came into collision with the goods train, which was going at the rate of about twenty-five miles an hour. Several passengers were severely shaken. A young man had his head and hands cut; both engines were thrown off the line and considerably damaged, and seven trucks were broken up. Traffic was interrupted for more than four hours. The persons injured having been attended to by a doctor were taken home in cabs.

8. ACCIDENT TO DEAN HOOK.—The congregation at Chichester Cathedral was greatly excited this (Sunday) morning by an accident which befell the venerable Dean Hook. He had proceeded from his stall to the communion table for the purpose of officiating in the communion service, when either his foot became entangled in his robes, or he slipped on the marble pavement, for he fell with much violence against the communion table, uttering a loud cry as he fell. The bishop and other clergy were just by at the time, and with the assistance of the vergers the very reverend gentleman was raised to his feet. He at once desired that the service should be proceeded with, and requested to be taken home. With assistance he was removed to the deanery, where he was seen by Dr. Tyacke, his medical attendant. It was then found he had sustained a severe cut on the lip, and several abrasions on the face, but no bones were broken, and, though severely shaken, he was not permanently injured. The congregation were much alarmed at the occurrence, but the service was proceeded with to the close.

— ALARMING FIRE IN SOUTHWARK.—A fire of an alarming character took place the same afternoon in Great Suffolk Street, Southwark, which occasioned much anxiety as to the safety of travellers on the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway, and a block on that line of nearly three hours between the Borough Road and Ludgate Hill Stations. Three of the arches in the immediate vicinity of the Blackfriars junction, and extending from Great Suffolk Street to Gravel Lane, are occupied by Mr. W. Carrington, rag merchant, and a large quantity of stores were located in a space of nearly fifty yards in length. The call was made at ten minutes past two, and within a quarter of an hour several engines were present, by which time the fire had made rapid progress. The smoke and smell arising from the burning material, coupled with the flames which shot forth from the arches and ascended to about the level of the line on either side, rendered the scene a remarkable one. The trains were stopped until the officials of the railway company had inspected the arches, and in spite of the cracks in the brickwork, were satisfied as to their safety. The fire continued to burn furiously for hours, and a large amount of property was destroyed.

— THE MISSION WEEK in London, in connection with the Established Church, which had been arranged some months previously by the Bishops of London, Winchester, and Rochester, com-

menced on this Sunday. On the previous Friday a solemn service, or rather chain of services, for the clergy only, took place at St. Paul's Cathedral, while in the evening the Bishop of Rochester met the clergy and lay-helpers of the South-Eastern District at St. John's, Upper Lewisham Road, and on Saturday afternoon the Bishop of Winchester took part in a service for the clergy of Lambeth and the neighbourhood at the old parish church of St. Mary, on the banks of the river.

At the inaugural service at St. Paul's, the clergy occupied seats under the dome, the Dean, Canon Gregory, and other members of the cathedral body being present in their ordinary costume. The addresses were given by the Rev. W. Walsham How, the Rev. W. H. Chapman, the Rev. G. Body, the Rev. W. Haslam, and the Rev. R. M. Benson. These gentlemen had been invited by the hon. secretaries of the Mission as representing various schools of thought.

The practical work of the Mission was commenced with much earnestness throughout the three dioceses on Monday morning, February 9. There was necessarily some difference in the nature of the services, arising out of the constitution of the ecclesiastical districts, but at most there was the Litany, the celebration of the Holy Communion, and an address by one of the missionaries at 8 A.M., evening prayer in the afternoon, a Mission service at 7 or 7.30 P.M., with meetings for men or women for instruction and prayer at 8 P.M.

The Mission services were in most cases conducted not by the minister of the parish, but by some clergyman from the country who had been appointed to act with him.

Many Dissenting places of worship were also open morning and evening in recognition of the Mission, their services consisting of prayers, hymns, and addresses, without any of the adjuncts resorted to by the Church of England clergy. In many parts of the outskirts addresses were delivered in halls and other large rooms without recourse to any church assistance whatever.

The Mission was brought to a conclusion on the 16th with a special thanksgiving service at St. Paul's, the sermon being preached by the Rev. G. H. Wilkinson, Vicar of St. Peter's, Eaton Square.

10. SHIPPING DISASTERS.—Severe gales have been raging on the Irish coast, and the barque "Cardross," whilst on a voyage to Liverpool, was wrecked off Queenstown. At 10 A.M., the wind blowing a whole gale from the south-east, the ship was struck by a squall, which threw her on her beam ends, swept decks and dismasted her, the captain, his wife, child, and five seamen being washed overboard. The remainder of the crew, eight in number, clung to the rigging until they dropped into the sea one by one from exhaustion. The mate and one of the men, the only survivors, were afterwards taken off by the coastguard crew at Skibbereen. The barque "Abraham Lincoln," from Cardiff to Messina,

shipped a sea which carried away bulwarks, boats, and everything movable, and broke hatches, causing her to take water in the hold, so that the crew commenced to throw cargo overboard. About 10.30 the Irish land was sighted, and all plain sail was made for the purpose of tacking the ship. After two days the wind died away, and the vessel drifted ashore on the rocks. Some of the crew jumped ashore with a rope, but the sea swept them away. The after part of the ship came round alongside of a rock when some of the men jumped on shore, leaving the master and several of the crew on the poop. The vessel then capsized, and broke up in a few minutes, whereby six of the crew were drowned, including the captain and two mates; the other seven were saved by scrambling up the rocks.

12. GREAT FIRE AT THE PANTECHNICON.—A fire, which in its results has caused the destruction of a greater quantity of valuable property than any which has occurred in London in modern times, has reduced to ruins a large building in Belgravia, known as the Pantechnicon. This establishment, which occupied about two acres of ground, was used as a repository for warehousing furniture, pictures, plate, and other valuable property. It consisted of five storeys, but only three stood above the level of the street, the remaining two being built underground, and used chiefly as silver closets and strong rooms for the storing of deeds. As to how many rooms there might have been, those who had charge of the vast building decline to commit themselves to a statement. They were of all sizes and shapes, having only one thing in common, and that was the iron sheeting, which was fondly supposed to make them fire-proof.

The outbreak was first noticed at about 4.30 P.M., in a warehouse on the second floor in the northern extremity of the building, where some goods were found to be on fire close to the wall. The foreman and the workpeople, twenty or thirty in number, at once got out their manual engine and tried to extinguish the flames; but they had difficulty in getting water, and were unable to make any visible effect. All the iron doors were shut except those by which the men could escape, and by way of further precaution heavy tarpaulins were thrown over all the goods on the ground floor. No time seems to have been lost by the Fire Brigade, for in less than a quarter of an hour several steam and manual engines, with a number of firemen under Captain Shaw, were on the spot. The fire at that time was not very large; but the place was very difficult of access, the smoke was overpowering, and the water supply, at first, was extremely short. All these circumstances prevented anything material being done to extinguish it; but the engines went speedily to work, and every effort was made, though without success, to subdue the flames. Soldiers were sent from the nearest barracks, and immediately set to work to remove the carriages in the front building. The result of their work was soon visible, for Belgrave Square, Wilton Crescent, and a number of

adjoining streets, were literally crowded with the vehicles extricated from the Pantechmicon. The horses, and those in an adjoining livery stable, belonging to Mr. Rice, about 150 in all, were also rescued in time, and taken to a place of safety. The books of Messrs. Smith and Radermacher, the proprietors of the burning building, were likewise removed to the offices of Messrs. Trollope, the builders, in Motcomb Street.

Meanwhile the fire was rapidly spreading from room to room and from warehouse to warehouse, iron doors and walls and laths notwithstanding; and the Fire Brigade—whose force was being largely increased every few minutes by the arrival of a fresh engine—had to retreat from their positions again and again as the flames and the smoke rushed upon them. An abundant water supply was eventually obtained; and the firemen, assisted by the soldiers, the Salvage Corps, and many volunteers, plied their hose from the roofs of adjacent houses and from every position from which the building could be reached.

From six o'clock until ten the fire raged with unabated fury, shortly after which hour a large portion of the roof of the south building fell in, and a party of about twenty men of the Fire Brigade who were working close by had a narrow escape. The force of the fall closed the iron door of the room in which they were at work and prevented their exit, but by a desperate effort they managed to force the door open and escape. At eleven o'clock the remaining portion of the building took fire, and it was then thought every minute that the surrounding houses in Motcomb Street would also be destroyed; but the wind happened to change and the danger was over. About half-past one o'clock the fire had gone down very much; and by four o'clock, or shortly afterwards, it was so much reduced that one-half of the brigade with their engines were sent back to their stations by Captain Shaw.

Throughout Saturday and Sunday seven steam-engines, and on Monday five engines, were kept steadily at work. As a spectacle the scene was one of the grandest order. The fire was visible for many miles round, and it required a large staff of police to keep back the crowd that quickly assembled.

Fortunately but one life was lost during the continuance of the fire, the victim being a lad named Scott. For some long time past this lad, with his two brothers, had been in the habit of appearing at fires, wearing a costume something like that of the brigade, and doing their best to help the regular men in their work. Scott had been warned not to go near a certain wall, which was evidently tottering; but, forgetting the caution, he turned his hose upon it, and almost immediately it fell on him. He was got out in an incredibly short time; but it was too late. He must have died instantaneously. It is stated that the Duke of Cambridge had a narrow escape. He had remarked to one of his suite, "That wall will be down in less than half-an-hour;" but he had scarcely uttered the words before the wall began to sway. His

Royal Highness, however, leaped back in time to avoid any injury. A fireman was injured by the fall of a wall, and two or three by the explosion of steam and the fall of a staircase. A trooper of the Life Guards also had his leg broken by some bricks falling on him.

The loss of property was enormous, and, as the proprietors of the building were not responsible for the safety of its contents, the private owners suffered heavily, but a small proportion of the whole having been insured. Sir Richard Wallace lost a very valuable collection of ancient armour, as well as a quantity of silver plate, a part of the Hertford property. Happily none of the fine old pictures of his collection were in the building. Sir Garnet Wolseley also lost his valuable collections made at various periods of his eventful career in the Crimea, India, China, and North America. They had been deposited in the Pantechnicon by the gallant owner in September last, before his departure for the Gold Coast.

15. FIRE AND LOSS OF LIFE.—Two lives were lost this morning at a fire in the shop of a seller of fried fish, in Carnaby Street, Golden Square. The people in the house, on being awakened, tried to escape by the staircase, but being driven back by the flames they rushed to the windows, and a young married woman named Lord jumped from the third floor and was killed on the spot. Several other persons jumped from the windows, and were picked up severely injured.

16. MEETING AT THE MANSION HOUSE.—A meeting was convened to-day by the Lord Mayor, in order to promote a public subscription for the relief of the sufferers in the famine which has long been anticipated in Bengal. A committee under the leadership of the Lord Mayor was appointed to manage the fund; and subscriptions have flowed in liberally, the Queen heading the list with 1,000*l*. The accounts received from India of the progress of the famine are of the most distressing character.

20. RAILWAY ACCIDENT.—Another of the frightful railway collisions which have become so frequent of late took place to-day at Euxton, near Wigan. Two or three trains were standing on the line, which was blocked in consequence of the breaking of the axle of a waggon, when the limited mail from London to the north came up. The morning was very foggy, and the driver of the mail did not perceive the coal train in front, or the red light of the signal, until he was within 150 yards. His train was running at a speed of about forty-five miles an hour, and although he shut off steam and partially reversed his engine a terrific collision ensued. The engine was thrown over upon its side against the bottom of a hedge, the tender was reared up almost straight behind it, and the rear waggons of the coal train and the front carriages of the mail were heaped up on their sides and ends, or wedged into one another in fearful confusion. Medical assistance was sent for to Wigan and Preston, and special trains were despatched from both places

with doctors. After the immediate wants of the sufferers had been attended to they were sent on to Wigan at five o'clock. The two men in charge of the engine of the limited mail were the most severely hurt, and died within a few hours.

23. INTERNATIONAL FOOTBALL MATCH.—This important annual match between England and Scotland was played according to the Rugby rules at the Kennington Oval. The first match came off at Edinburgh in the spring of 1871, where the Scotchmen won by a goal and a try to a try. Next year a return visit was paid to London, and the South countrymen were victorious by two goals and a try to one goal; Freeman, of the Marlborough Nomads, then, as on the present occasion, dropping the winning goal with a wonderful left-footer. Last year the Englishmen again went North to Glasgow, and "honours were easy," though the renowned Freeman all but brought victory to this side of the Tweed by another of his clever drops. The weather was anything but inviting when Scotland kicked off from the Gasworks goal. A dull fog and Scotch mist hung over the scene, the latter increasing into a steady downpour for half an hour or so in the middle of the game. This made the ground terribly slippery and miry, the uniforms of the respective sides (white jerseys, with a rose, and dark brown stockings for England; blue jerseys with a thistle, and scarlet stockings for Scotland, with white knickerbockers in either case) being scarcely distinguishable after a little time had elapsed. Some 4,000 spectators were present. On commencing, the Scotch team made all the play, and for the first half hour kept the ball in close proximity to the English goal, obtaining one try and a touch down. After this the play became pretty even, and the ball kept chiefly in the middle of the ground, abreast of the pavilion tent, till half time (three-quarters of an hour) was called, and goals were changed. From this time the play was as much in favour of England as it had previously been the reverse. The Southerners fairly pinned the Scotchmen up under the western goal, and compelled them to touch down twice, besides Morse very nearly obtaining goals on two occasions by drop kicks. About a quarter of an hour before time was called Freeman secured a goal for England with a splendid drop kick. Thus now placed the Englishmen's victory beyond doubt, as, although the Scotch fought hard to reverse fortune, it was beyond their power to do so in the short period left for play. Time was called at 4 P.M., and thus the English were left masters of the field.

— DEATH OF VOLTIGEUR.—This celebrated Derby and Leger winner died this week. His leg was broken by a kick from a mare, and he was shot in his stable at Aske. He was bred in 1847 by Mr. Robert Stephenson, of Hart, and was bought when a colt by the late Lord Zetland for 350*l*. The confidence felt by Lord Zetland and his trainer in the prowess of Voltigeur rendered him an immense favourite for the Derby. "The tenantry on the Zetland

estates backed him to a man—even the domestic servants anticipated their wages for months to come about him; ladies'-maids could not sleep for dreaming of his success, and a special train of North Riding farmers accompanied him to London." He won both the Derby and the St. Leger, following up this feat by defeating the hitherto unconquered Flying Dutchman for the Doncaster Cup. Next year, however, he was beaten by the older horse in a memorable two miles match for 1,000*l.* a side at York.

28. CLOSE OF THE TICHBORNE TRIAL.—The month ended to the intense relief of judges, jury, and the wearied public generally, with the termination of the great Tichborne, or rather Orton, trial, which had lasted throughout 188 days, spread over a period of above ten months—a longer time than that occupied by the former trial, for the possession of the estates, which took up 103 Court days, from May 10, 1871, to March 6, 1872. After the jury had given their verdict of "Guilty" on both counts of the indictment for perjury, and the sentence of fourteen years' penal servitude had been pronounced by Mr. Justice Mellor, the prisoner, henceforth to be known as Arthur Orton, was taken out of the court by the doors in Westminster Hall, nearly opposite the members' entrance to the House of Commons. He was in custody of Mr. Superintendent Mott, accompanied by Colonel Henderson, Colonel Pearson, and Inspector Denning. There were loungers about the hall and a crowd watching that entrance to the court where the public have hitherto sought for admission. When they caught sight of the prisoner's well-known form in custody they made a rush to the door of the House of Commons, but a strong body of police was stationed there and kept the crowd from following. The prisoner was taken through the corridors and lobbies of the House of Lords across the courtyard to the foot of the Victoria Tower, where he was placed in the police omnibus. The crowd lingered about the precincts of the hall and courts for more than an hour, apparently in the belief he was still in the building, but as the police were withdrawn it gradually melted away. From the Victoria Tower entrance the prisoner was driven over Lambeth Bridge, along Stamford Street, and finally lodged in Newgate about half-past one in the afternoon.

MARCH.

2. THE GRAND NATIONAL HUNT MEETING, which this year took place at Aylesbury, for the first time, was scarcely so successful as usual. This must be attributed partly to the recent heavy rains, which had made the ground so heavy and rotten that many owners sent their horses home again directly they had seen the course, and partly to the big, old-fashioned fences, which did not at all suit the ideas of some of the modern steeplechase horses, which

in too many cases are merely ex-flat-racers, converted by a few weeks' drilling over bushed hurdles. The attendance was enormous, though the Prince of Wales, not having returned from the Continent, could not be present; nor did Mr. Disraeli, who, being one of the stewards, was confidently expected, put in an appearance. The Grand National Hunt Steeplechase was, of course, the chief event of Tuesday. It had attracted one hundred subscribers; still, several of these merely took a nomination and paid the minor forfeit, and a field of a dozen was all that could be mustered. The race was scarcely in doubt after the first mile, for Lucellum, who recently won a small event at Doncaster, always held a good lead, and, steered by Captain Smith, one of our most accomplished gentlemen riders, finally won in a canter by ten lengths. In the course of the race Captain Riddell, who rode Minister, had a fall and broke his collar-bone.

— FATAL EXPLOSIONS.—A frightful explosion of fire-damp has just occurred at Dixon's Pit, Blantyre, near Hamilton. Two men named Hugh Pollock and John Kerr had gone to work to clear the roads and prepare the pit for the colliers. About one o'clock the occupants of the colliery rows in the neighbourhood were startled by a loud report. On the manager and a number of the men going to the pit they found the dead bodies of Pollock and Kerr, one of which was seen resting against a stoop, having been blown a distance of twenty yards, and the other was discovered near the mouth of the shaft. The two men were the only persons in the pit, and as they were provided with safety lamps it is not known how the fire-damp ignited.

On the same day a disastrous boiler explosion took place at Hollers Bank Cotton Mill, Blackburn, belonging to Mr. James Thompson. One of the two large boilers at work blew up and fell upon the end of the weaving shed, where all hands were at work. The boiler-house was blown down, the engine-house was demolished, and the people working in the weaving shed were buried in the ruins. The mill was comparatively new, having been erected a little over twelve months ago. South of the mill was a large weaving shed containing 670 looms, and to the north-west corner of that was the boiler-house. The boiler-house and the joiners' shop above it were blown to pieces by the explosion, the tape and winding-rooms were destroyed, a portion of the weaving shed was blown completely away, and the machinery in the engine-house and the looms were shattered. Wheels and other pieces of machinery were hured across the canal, nearly the whole of one of the boilers was moved twenty or thirty feet, and a heavy block of stone belonging to the mill was found in a field 200 yards away. The traffic on the canal was interrupted, a good deal of the rubbish having fallen into the water. Eleven bodies, including that of Mr. Richard Thompson, the son of the proprietor of the mills, have been recovered. Several persons were brought out alive, and conveyed to the infirmary, but some of them were in a dying state.

The explosion is believed to have occurred through cold water being turned on when the boilers were overheated.

7. ARRIVAL OF THE DUKE AND DUCHESS OF EDINBURGH.—The welcome given to the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh on their landing at Gravesend on Saturday, March 7, was one of which even the daughter of the Czar of all the Russias might well feel proud. It was not only magnificent, but respectful and cordial.

On Friday the Royal pair had embarked at Antwerp in the "Victoria and Albert," which, accompanied by the Belgian steamer "Leopold II.," arrived in Gravesend Reach the next morning. Having steamed slowly up to a point exactly opposite the Terrace Pier, the "Victoria and Albert" was secured to her moorings by nine o'clock. She had both the English and the Russian flags flying from her masthead. Prince Arthur, attended by Major Pickard and Lieutenant Buchanan, arrived from London soon after ten o'clock, and was taken to the Royal yacht in one of her boats. At five minutes before eleven the Duke and Duchess came to the gangway of the "Victoria and Albert." His Royal Highness wore his uniform of a Captain in the Royal Navy, and the sash of the Garter. The Duchess wore a blue dress, a white lama cloak, and a white bonnet with fern trimming. As the Duke and Duchess descended the ladder the crew of the barge in which they were to cross to the pier raised their oars aloft, and accompanied this salute with three hearty cheers, which were taken up by the blue-jackets now manning the yards of the ships of war, and by the crews of the merchant vessels and the numerous pleasure steamers and small boats which covered the river for a wide circuit around the Royal yacht.

The landing stage and pier were splendidly decorated for the occasion, and the Duke and Duchess were received with addresses and bouquets from the Mayor, the Recorder, the Bishop of Rochester, and many gentlemen and ladies. At the station, also beautifully decorated, they entered the train for Windsor, which they reached about one o'clock. Here, amidst evergreens and flags, the crowds cheering on all sides, they were met on the platform by the Queen in person, accompanied by the Prince and Princess of Wales and the rest of the Royal Family. The party drove to the Castle in eight carriages, each drawn by four horses. Just outside George IV.'s gateway they were met, by the whole gathering of Eton boys, with the most vociferous of cheers. On Monday evening a State Banquet was given by the Queen in St. George's Hall.

12. THE STATE ENTRY INTO LONDON of the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh was an imposing scene. The frost in the early morning was the most severe of the winter, and before nine o'clock a heavy snowstorm set in, which continued till nearly one. Snow fell as the Queen, with her new daughter and Prince Alfred and a few other members of the Royal Family, left Windsor Castle, at eleven o'clock, in closed carriages, for the railway station, with an

escort of Scots Greys ; snow fell and made the country look like one vast bride-cake as the Royal train was drawn by the flag-decked engine "Queen" to Paddington Terminus, which was all ablaze with Russian and English colours ; snow still fell as the Royal party were driven in open carriages from the Great Western station and received London's first "thundering cheer of the street." For hours the people had been gathering, in spite of the persistent "Russian snowfall," and they thronged the windows, balconies, and even housetops, and the pavements and each side of the roadway, all along the line from Paddington to Buckingham Palace. The Queen and the Royal couple showed their gracious appreciation of this English weather-scorning heartiness by themselves braving the snow in an open landau, drawn by six bays, with postilions in scarlet and gold liveries. Her Majesty was dressed, as usual, in half-mourning, and looked in very good health as she smilingly bowed in acknowledgment of the hearty cheering. By her side sat the Grand Duchess, attired in a purple velvet mantle edged with fur, a pale blue silk dress, and white bonnet. The frank, ingenuous expression of her fresh, comely features seemed to win all hearts. Princess Beatrice sat facing the Grand Duchess, while next the Princess was the Duke of Edinburgh, in Captain's uniform, taking off his cocked hat every moment. The route was lined by the military and the police ; a troop of Carabiniers preceded the Royal carriage, which had an escort of Life Guards ; and the Duke of Cambridge rode to the right of Her Majesty's carriage. Snow continued to fall, but the cheers grew louder, and the flags, and mottoes, and Venetian masts were in greater profusion as the Duke and Duchess passed down the Edgware Road, across which, at one point, was slung the most appropriate trophy of all—a model of the ship "Galatea." Oxford Street was similarly gay with bunting and red cloth and loyal decorations. As the Royal cortège turned round Oxford Circus, quite a fairy scene greeted the eyes of the happy couple. From a pavilion, bright with hot-house plants and flowers, there were suspended from the thronged house-tops of the Circus graceful garlands of red and white roses ; while at the commencement of Regent Street, plaster figures stood on pedestals holding wreaths of welcome. The cheering here was particularly enthusiastic. The same good-humoured welcome came from the closely-packed people all the way down Regent Street, resplendent with flags and mottoes, and through Pall Mall and Cockspur Street to Trafalgar Square, where the cheers from the assembled thousands increased in volume ; and—"happy thought" of the Admiralty—especial pleasure must have been given to the Royal Captain by the final salute from the gallant bluejackets under Captain Boys, who were formed in front of the Admiralty, Whitehall, and Buckingham Palace, as the Queen with their Royal Highnesses finished their triumphal procession through the west end of London. At the principal window of the palace the Prince of Wales, Prince Christian, and the Royal children were awaiting the

arrival of the procession, while the Princess of Wales and Princess Louise were stationed at another window. As the carriages entered the gates of Buckingham Palace the snow suddenly ceased, and the sun broke through the clouds. A salute of artillery was given as the Royal Family alighted. The immense crowd continued to cheer in the most vociferous manner; and a few minutes afterwards Her Majesty and the Duke and Duchess, evidently rightly interpreting the wishes of the people, appeared at one of the balconies and repeatedly bowed their acknowledgments.

In the evening there were brilliant illuminations in the principal thoroughfares of the metropolis. The day did not pass off, unhappily, without fatal consequences. The most serious casualty was the fall of a temporary stand at Charing Cross. Three lives are reported to have been lost, and thirty persons were more or less injured. In the course of the day Sir Albert Sassoon fell and fractured his arm; George Leggett, private in the 6th Carabiniers, was thrown from his horse and had his leg fractured by a kick; William Chance, private in the Dragoon Guards, sustained concussion of the spine, through his horse rearing and falling back upon him. Seven minor accidents were admitted into St. George's Hospital; as were also three women with broken arms, and a boy and a man with dislocated ankles, the latter occasioned by an attempt to climb the Park railings. Two children were suffocated in their mothers' arms while in the crowd, and several minor accidents occurred.

15. THE DEMONSTRATION IN HYDE PARK in favour of an amnesty for the Fenian prisoners, which had been talked of for some weeks, took place to-day. A procession of 6,000 or 7,000 persons marched from Trafalgar Square with flags and bands of music through the principal streets of the West End to the "Reformers' Tree" in Hyde Park, where a meeting was held, and resolutions passed calling upon Mr. Disraeli to use his influence with Her Majesty to induce her to grant an amnesty to the forty Fenian prisoners in gaol. It was understood that the committee should arrange for sending a deputation to Mr. Disraeli, if necessary. It is estimated that there were about 25,000 or 30,000 persons in the park during the meeting, but there was no disturbance.

16. COMING OF AGE OF THE PRINCE IMPERIAL.—The eighteenth birthday—the coming of age—of the Prince Imperial of France was celebrated by an imposing demonstration at Chiselhurst to-day. From an early hour the common in front of Camden House, the residence of the Empress Eugénie, presented a most animated appearance, for trains from London brought thousands of Frenchmen and Frenchwomen, the vast majority of the former being in evening costume, and wearing violet favours. At ten o'clock the Empress and her son received at breakfast Prince Lucien Bonaparte, Prince Lucien Murat, Prince Louis Murat, Prince Charles Napoleon Bonaparte, and M. Jerome Bonaparte, M. Rouher, the Marquis de Lavalette, the Duc de Padoue, Duc de

Gramont, Comte de Casabianca, M. Piéti (formerly Prefect of Police), and a number of other distinguished guests, including many members of the National Assembly.

The young Prince replied to the address presented to him with an elocution worthy of his high rank and aspirations, and his speech was delivered with deep feeling. He was interrupted by loud acclamations when he alluded to the President of the French Republic as the "former companion of the glories and misfortunes of my father." Still louder cheers interrupted him when he claimed a *plébiscite* in order to settle the foundations of government in France, and spoke of the *plébiscite* as at once the "safety" and the "right" of France. The audience again broke out into shouts when he declared that if the name of Napoleon should issue for the eighth time from the voting urns, he was ready to accept the responsibility imposed upon him by the will of the nation.

The Prince and the Empress afterwards received numerous deputations, many of whom brought presents. One of them, a flag of white satin richly embroidered, the offering of the Hautes Pyrénées, was much admired. The day passed off without a single *contretemps*. About four o'clock the special trains began to take back the visitors to London, and at seven o'clock Chislehurst had regained much of its usual tranquillity.

17. A LARGE SHIP RUN DOWN OFF GRAVESEND.—The "Princess Somiawatty," 1,000 tons burthen, bound for Bombay with a general cargo, was sunk off Gravesend by a screw steamer belonging to the Peninsular and Oriental Company. The barque was at anchor off the Ship and Lobster, just below Gravesend; and at about a quarter-past nine o'clock, the morning being quite clear, the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamer "Indus" steamed up the Reach. When a short distance below the barque the steamer had to alter her course, and come over to the southward, to get astern of a billy-boy schooner. The tide was running up pretty strong at the time, and before the steamer could get round into her proper course again she ran into the barque, striking her on the port bow. The force of the collision was so great that the steamer made a large gash right into the hull of the barque, and the latter sank within ten minutes of the occurrence. The crew on board the barque numbered about twenty, with a passenger; they were taken out of the rigging by watermen, thirteen or fourteen being brought ashore by two watermen named Allen and T. Martin. All escaped without hurt except one sailor, who, being sick and in his berth at the time, was jammed amongst the splinters, and received some injuries, though not of a serious character.

— WRECK OF A CALCUTTA STEAMER.—The British steamer "Queen Elizabeth," of Glasgow, homeward bound from Calcutta with a valuable cargo, consisting of tea, rice, hides, wheat, and upwards of 2,500 chests of indigo, has been wrecked at Punta Arenilla, near Tarifa. Mrs. Allardyce, two children, and Mrs. Suckling, were drowned. Ten other persons are missing. Fifty-

seven, who remained on board, have been saved. A steamer was sent from the dockyard at Gibraltar to render assistance. A telegram from Gibraltar says she has since parted amidships, and that the cargo was coming ashore. The bodies of the Rev. Mr. Allardyce and one of the firemen of the wrecked steamer "Queen Elizabeth" were subsequently recovered and taken to Gibraltar, where they were buried on the afternoon of the 20th.

20. FATAL STEEPLECHASE ACCIDENT.—Great gloom was cast over the Windsor Steeplechases by the sad accident which happened to Lord Rossmore, of the 1st Life Guards. He was riding in the Guards' Cup race at the Windsor Steeplechases, when his horse fell at a hedge and ditch and rolled over him. His lordship was at once conveyed to the Cavalry Barracks, and attended by Dr. Turrell, of Windsor, when it was found that he had sustained some very serious internal injuries. The Queen, who witnessed the accident from her carriage in the King's Road, caused repeated inquiries to be made at the barracks, and on the following day, at Her Majesty's special request, none of the military races were held. Lord Rossmore died on the 28th of the month, in consequence of the injuries he had received.

— HIGH TIDE IN THE THAMES.—The highest tide which has been seen in the Thames for very many years occurred this afternoon. At London Bridge it reached no less than 4 ft. 3½ in. above Trinity high-water mark. The southern embankment was nearly a foot under water. At Westminster the tide rose over the lower embankment and poured down the subway which leads to New Palace Yard; but the sight which attracted most attention from the people who stood upon the bridge was to be seen at the Speaker's stairs. Over them the water poured like a small cataract, and in a very short space of time the plot of grass in front of the Speaker's house was submerged. So far, indeed, did the overflow reach that the officials in charge of Westminster Palace were afraid of damage being done to the building.

The Lambeth district from Blackfriars to Vauxhall Bridges, occupied by small houses, chiefly inhabited by labouring people, suffered the most from the overflow. For upwards of one hour—from three to four o'clock—the water rushed across the wharves, yards, and narrow lanes lining the banks, and speedily flooded the main thoroughfares, such as Commercial Road, Belvedere Road, High Street, &c., running parallel with the river, to the depth of from three feet to four feet. The intervening cross streets were rendered impassable for upwards of two hours, and the inhabitants were unable to leave their houses. In Vine Street, York Road, the approach to the South-Western Railway Station, nearly a quarter of a mile from the river, the water was about four feet in depth, and all access to the station was cut off for some time. The overflow being sudden and unexpected, the amount of damage done was very considerable. The kitchens and cellars of the houses situated within a few hundred yards of the river were filled with

muddy water to a depth of several feet. Many old women and children narrowly escaped being drowned.

Prince's Square, Blackfriars, composed of some thirty low-lying houses, let in tenements to the very poorest class of labourers, was flooded to a greater extent than any other place in the district. At high water there was in the open space of the square and in the basements of the houses five feet of water. The houses at the extreme end of Prince's Square, which is a *cul de sac*, were flooded to the ceilings of the basements, and half the stock of a little grocery shop—in the shape of firewood, match-boxes, &c.—floated out into the square. From a house close by two children asleep were snatched out of bed by their mother, just as the water had risen to the bed-clothes. A woman, who had only been confined in the morning, floated from her bed, clasping her baby in her arms. The child was drowned, and when the woman was rescued she was nearly dead. Many of the poorer families are almost ruined by the destruction of their little property, and a public meeting has been held in the Lambeth Vestry Hall, to raise subscriptions for them. The damage done to the goods of the poor was estimated at about 2,000*l*.

Mr. Frank Buckland communicated to the *Times* an interesting account of the great tidal wave in the Severn, called "the Bore," which was seen on the same day to unusual advantage. He was stationed at Denny Rocks, five miles below Gloucester, and at 9.20 A.M. some boys perched high in a tree shouted out the warning, "Flood, oh!" "Then to a minute of her time came the Bore, sweeping with a magnificent curve round a bend in the river. As the wave approached nearer and nearer the 'voice of many waters,' accompanied by a strange and sudden blast of cold wind, was truly awe-inspiring. In an instant the Bore swept past us with a mighty rush and the whirl of a thousand Deibys passing the grand stand. Two angry precipices of water, the escorts on either side of this terrible wave, swept with terrific weight and power along the banks, throwing high up into the air and well above the pollard trees a sheet of water mixed with mud and sticks. The sudden rise of the water was between eleven and twelve feet. An old man told me that this was as good a head as he had seen for forty years. The tide following the Bore rose with great rapidity and flooded the fields and roads far and near. It was most interesting to see a barge plunge up like a rearing horse to take the Bore, while some frightened ducks swam out into the river and topped the wave in a most graceful manner. The Bore is thus formed. A great tidal wave coming in from the Atlantic is narrowed by the funnel-shaped estuary of the Severn, it is then pushed forward by the weight of the ocean behind; mixed sea and river waters then assume the form of a wave, which, beginning below Newnham, increases its height as the banks narrow, and ultimately subsides above Gloucester. A Bore also runs up the Solway and the Humber, where it is called the 'Eagre' or 'Hygre.'"

— RETURN OF THE ASHANTEE TROOPS.—Great excitement was occasioned at Portsmouth and the neighbourhood this week by the arrival of the victorious troops from the Ashantee Campaign. The first to arrive was the "Tamar," which brought home the 23rd Fusiliers. They landed on the morning of the 20th, and were followed the next day by the "Manitoba," having on board General Sir Garnet Wolseley and his staff. On the 24th, the "Sarmatian," with the 42nd Highlanders, arrived; and in the course of the week the "Himalaya" brought the 2nd battalion Rifle Brigade, a detachment of the Royal Engineers and Royal Marine Light Infantry, and a few invalids. At each fresh disembarkation the troops were received with a most enthusiastic welcome. The General and his staff arrived in London on the 21st, and were warmly cheered. Immediately after his arrival Sir Garnet reported himself at the War Department, and had an interview with Mr. Gathorne Hardy. On Sunday (March 22) he went to Windsor to pay his respects to Her Majesty. On arriving at Windsor he was met at the station, on behalf of Her Majesty, by General Ponsonby, the Queen's Private Secretary; Colonel Gardiner, the Equerry-in-Waiting; and Sir John Cowell, the Master of the Household. Sir Garnet drove to the Castle in one of the Royal carriages, and after remaining with the Queen about two hours, returned to town. The Duke of Cambridge inspected the forces at Shorncliffe Camp on the 21st, and on behalf of the Queen and country thanked the troops who had returned from Ashantee for their gallant services, for the perseverance they had displayed in a victorious march through pathless jungles and deadly swamps, and for the courage exhibited at every step. His Royal Highness assured the Welsh Fusiliers that they had amply sustained the traditions of the regiment, and congratulated the men on their soldierlike appearance.

On the 24th, his Royal Highness went down to Portsmouth and inspected the Highlanders. The Duke afterwards addressed the regiment, and congratulated them on the good work they had done—work which the fortune of war had put into their hands instead of their fellows, and which would add another leaf to the laurel wreath that was already theirs. He complimented them on their appearance, and said that before long they would have the honour of hearing from the lips of the Queen herself her opinion of their gallant conduct.

— KING KOFFEE'S UMBRELLA.—The Ashantee War has yielded a trophy of Sir Garnet Wolseley's victorious arms in the state umbrella of His Majesty King Koffee Calcall. This article was brought to England by Lieutenant the Hon. H. Wood, 10th Hussars, aide-de-camp to Sir Garnet Wolseley, and presented to Her Majesty the Queen, at Windsor Castle. Our readers do not require to be told that the umbrella is not for use to keep off rain or sunshine, though shelter against both is needful in a tropical clime; **but that it is an emblem of pomp and dignity, held over the King's head on all ceremonial occasions.** Its material is velvet, partly

dark crimson, partly black, with gold trimmings. The size is about seven feet in diameter. The 'umbrella has a number of appendages, cut of leather and cloth, with square and round knobs. These are fetish chains, to ensure the good luck of the royal owner. A lion's claw, fastened to the ribs of the umbrella, inside and outside, is likewise a kind of charm or talisman. The umbrella was taken at Coomassie, on February 4, when our troops entered that city.

21. DR. HAYMAN AND RUGBY SCHOOL.—A case was concluded to-day which has occupied the public attention for a considerable time. This was a suit instituted by Dr. Hayman, late Head Master of Rugby School, against the Governing Body of that school, and the Bishop of Exeter, one of its members, for dismissing him without due cause from the Head Mastership. Dr. Hayman obtained his appointment on the resignation of Dr. Temple, now Bishop of Exeter, in November 1869. Dr. Temple and the whole body of assistant masters, with one exception, were strongly opposed to the appointment, and memorialised the trustees of the school accordingly. They, however, persisted in it, and from the time Dr. Hayman entered upon his duties, he was, according to his own declaration, harassed and thwarted by the assistant masters. He endeavoured to improve his position by dismissing the most hostile of them, the school fell in numbers, and when in December 1871 a new Governing Body was elected, in accordance with a recent Act of Parliament, in the place of the former trustees, comprising among its members Dr. Temple and Dr. Bradley (the Head Master of Marlborough College and a former assistant master at Rugby), both of them active opponents to Dr. Hayman's appointment, the case of the dismissed masters was taken up by them, and a severe rebuke passed upon the Head Master. Constant efforts were made to bring about his resignation, and as Dr. Hayman held out, a resolution was finally passed, dated December 19, 1873, removing him from his office. The case was opened on behalf of Dr. Hayman by Mr. Glasse, Q.C., and was met with a demurrer, which was argued on behalf of the defendants by Mr. Cotton, Q.C. Mr. Glasse and Mr. Pearson, Q.C., with him, contended that the Governing Body were improperly influenced by two of their members, Dr. Temple and Dr. Bradley, who were prejudiced against the plaintiff; and also that they had no power to dismiss him. Vice-Chancellor Malins, before whom the case was argued, more than once expressed himself strongly on the injustice with which he considered Dr. Hayman to have been treated, but judgment was in favour of the demurrer. "Upon the whole," he said, "I am sorry to be obliged to come to the conclusion that the bill does not show a case for the interference of the Court, and the demurrer must, therefore, be allowed, but not with costs. I am extremely sorry for the grievous hardship of Dr. Hayman's case, but I am satisfied that a prolongation of the painful disputes which would be the result of overruling the demurrer here, would

be of no benefit to him. I believe that events have made his retention of his office impossible. I therefore allow the demurrer, but I do so without costs." The vacant appointment to the Head Mastership of Rugby was given by the Governing Body to Dr. Jex-Blake, Head Master of Cheltenham College.

23. LABOUR STRIKES.—The executive committee of the National Agricultural Labourers' Union met at Leamington, and reported 2,500 unionist labourers to be locked out throughout the country, and the committee gave permission for strikes in two other districts where the men's demands have been refused. The recently appointed Royal Commission on Labour was strongly denounced, together with the action taken by Mr. Macdonald, M.P., and Mr. T. Hughes. Mr. Cox, "the Derbyshire Magistrate," apologised for Mr. Hughes and Mr. Macdonald as the victims of a trick. They had been, he said, entrapped into the Commission by being allowed only half an hour to decide whether they would serve or not. About 1,200 locked-out farm labourers paraded Newmarket streets on Tuesday, preceded by a band, and wearing the unionist colour—blue. Letters threatening incendiary fires have been received by some of the farmers.

The miners' strike in South Staffordshire appears to be assuming an alarming aspect. The whole of the men in the Cannock district are out, and the notices of a large number in the Dudley and Brierly Hill districts expire shortly. The prospect of a general strike of colliers in the Black Country, consequent on the threatened reduction of wages, is more serious than has been the case for many months past. There have been meetings in various colliery centres this week. In North Staffordshire the miners have held a mass meeting to concert measures for resisting the reduction of 15 per cent. in wages, which takes effect from next Saturday. The masters' conduct was characterised as "unjust, dishonest, and oppressive." After paying them this compliment the men expect them to receive their delegates at a friendly conference. Should the reduction be enforced, about eight thousand of them threaten to strike. In Lancashire the same question is being discussed in a more pacific way by conferences of delegates.

28. UNIVERSITY BOAT RACE.—There can be no question that the spectators at the Inter-University boat race this year were fewer by many thousands than on the last three or four occasions. The towing-path was never inconveniently crowded, and the return passage over Hammersmith Bridge, so dreaded by the weaker sex, was accomplished with ease. This apparent diminution of interest was partly owing to the fact that eleven o'clock in the morning is the most inconvenient hour possible for business men, and partly that the race was regarded as a certainty for Cambridge. The Oxford boat was the first to appear, but Cambridge was not long behind, and at fourteen minutes past eleven they were ready for the start. The reaction in favour of Oxford, which had been so marked during the week, had quite subsided, and frequent offers of 3 to 1

on Cambridge met with no response. In the first half-dozen strokes the light blue oars showed slightly in advance, Rhodes setting a stroke of 38 to the minute, while Way was pulling 39; both, however, soon settled down to 35, and opposite Craven Cottage Cambridge had drawn clear. Way then quickened a little, and on shooting Hammersmith Bridge—reached in 8 min. 27 sec.—was only half a length behind. As they passed the Doves, Oxford shot to the front, and a desperate struggle commenced. The rough water in Chiswick Eyot suited the Oxford boat to perfection, and it held a lead of half a length until passing the Bathing Creek, where Rhodes quickened up to 37, and in a very few strokes was a length in front. The race was then really over, as Cambridge led through Barnes Bridge by two lengths; and though Way made another desperate effort, his crew were all to pieces, and suffered a three-lengths' defeat, in 22 min. 39 sec.—the slow time being fully accounted for by a strong wind and sluggish tide. After the long catalogue of misfortunes, which culminated in the loss of the toss, it was almost impossible that Oxford could win, and the crew deserve the greatest credit for the good fight they made up to the point when their want of condition told its inevitable tale. Too much praise cannot be given to Way, who, though far the lightest man in the boat, worked like a giant; while Rhodes, the rival stroke, showed rare patience and judgment throughout the race. We append the names of both crews, with the weights taken when they last scaled:—

CAMBRIDGE.			OXFORD.		
	st.	lb.		st.	lb.
1. Hilbert, St. John's (bow)	11	1½	1. Benson, Brasenose (bow)	11	0
2. Armitage, Jesus	11	8	2. Sinclair, Oriel	11	5½
3. Close, First Trinity	11	0½	3. Sherwood, Christ Church	11	8
4. Estcourt, Trinity Hall	11	10½	4. Harding, Merton	11	1½
5. Lecky-Brown, Jesus	12	5	5. Williams, Lincoln	13	0½
6. Aylmer, First Trinity	12	11	6. Nicholson, Magdalen	12	10
7. Read, First Trinity	12	11½	7. Stayner, St. John's	11	10½
8. Rhodes, Jesus (stroke)	11	7	8. Way, Brasenose (stroke)	10	9
Candy, Caius (cox.)	7	5	Lambert, Wadham (cox)	7	2

The sports took place, as usual, at Lillie Bridge on the day preceding the boat-race, and after a fine struggle, Oxford just won, by scoring five events against four. The running was scarcely up to the usual average of University men; but both the high and broad jump and throwing the hammer produced splendid performances, as M. J. Brooks (Oxford) jumped 5 ft. 10 in.; E. J. Davies, who has for some time been quite unrivalled as a broad jumper, exceeded all his previous efforts by clearing 22 ft. 10½ in.; and G. H. Hales threw the hammer 126 ft. 9 in., which is fully a yard more than any amateur has previously accomplished. The one hundred yards produced the unusual spectacle of three men running a dead heat. In the run-off M. G. Glazebrook (Oxford) got the best of the start, and at half distance led by fully two yards; but E. J. Davies (Cambridge) gradually crept up, and won by a foot.

The quarter mile was an easy win for G. A. Templer (Cambridge) in 51 4-5 sec.; and E. A. Sandford (Oxford) had all his own way in the mile. When eight events had been contested, each side had won four, so victory was solely dependent on the result of the three miles. Oxford was fortunate in possessing an unusually good man in W. R. H. Stevenson, who won very easily.

— HURRICANE AT MAURITIUS.—The island colony of Mauritius was visited by a severe hurricane which, commencing on March 26, only terminated on the 30th. This was at an unusually late period; and in the very advanced state of the sugar-canes it was feared that it would prove most disastrous to the growing crop. Much damage was sustained by the shipping in the harbour of Port Louis, where many of the principal warehouses and stores were unroofed. On the 28th the French barque "Picard" was totally wrecked on the north-east coast. She was from Singapore, with timber and fifty-four Chinese passengers, of whom three, with two of the crew, were drowned. The "Chrysolite," from Madagascar, with bullocks, was, on the same day, wrecked on the south-east coast; the cargo and eleven of the crew were lost.

30. REVIEW OF THE ASHANTEE TROOPS.—The whole of the troops returned from the Ashantee War, numbering about 1,600, were reviewed by Her Majesty the Queen in Windsor Great Park to-day. Her Majesty, in an open carriage drawn by four ponies, was accompanied by the Princess of Wales, the Duchess of Edinburgh, and Princess Christian of Schleswig-Holstein. Another carriage contained Princess Louise (Marchioness of Lorne), Princess Beatrice, and Prince Leopold. The lords and ladies in waiting and Lord Cardwell were in the train of Royal carriages. The Prince of Wales wore his uniform as Colonel of the Rifle Brigade, and Prince Arthur that of a Captain in the same regiment; the Duke of Edinburgh wore an Artillery uniform. The Duke of Cambridge, as Field-Marshal Commanding-in-Chief, was attended by his staff; the Duke of Teck, the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg, Prince Edward of Saxe-Weimar, and others of the Court were present. The military escort was composed of the 2nd Life Guards. As the Queen drove slowly in front and in rear of the long line the band of each regiment played a march, the men coming to the shoulder as the Queen passed. When the Queen had inspected the troops a hollow square was formed. The Queen and her escort took up their positions in the centre of the square. The troops were addressed on Her Majesty's behalf by the Commander-in-Chief. He said he had it in command from the Queen to congratulate the force upon their safe return to England, and to thank them for the bravery which they had displayed. Then came the distribution of the awards "for honour." To Sir Garnet Wolseley Her Majesty presented the insignia of the Order of St. Michael and St. George and of a K.C.B. The Queen was pleased to address Sir Garnet in terms of congratulation and compliment. Lord Gifford was then called to the front, and received the Victoria

Cross. With her own hands the Queen fastened this most honourable distinction to the breast of the young Lieutenant, who was warmly congratulated by his brother officers. The Victoria Cross was to have been also bestowed upon Sergeant M'Gaw, of the 42nd Highlanders, who was not well enough to be present.

The troops then marched past, Sir Garnet Wolseley riding at the head of the column, and Sir Archibald Alison in rear of the General. The Fusiliers and the "Black Watch" went by with the precision of garrison troops. The Rifle Brigade were as steady, and perfectly dressed. Nor were the Artillery and Engineers out of form. In the rear of column were the men of the Army Service Corps and the Hospital Corps; the three chaplains (Protestant, Roman Catholic, and Presbyterian) were present amongst the staff. After this ceremony the Royal party returned to the flagstaff and awaited the Royal and general salute. The bands played the National Anthem, the colours were drooped, the troops presented arms, and the officers lowered their swords. Sir Garnet Wolseley called for three cheers for the Queen, and after this salute Her Majesty and the Royal party rode off the ground amidst renewed cheering from the spectators. The troops marched across the park to a spot upon which were erected marquees, and here the men took their "Queen's luncheon" in the open, while the officers were partaking of Her Majesty's hospitality in tents.

After the inspection, Sir Garnet Wolseley remained some time on the review ground with his friends; subsequently the General rode over to the bivouac, where he was loudly cheered by the troops. He was escorted to the Castle by a large concourse of people. Indeed, the General had only to be seen at any part of the ground to be recognised and cheered. He remained as a guest of the Queen.

The troops marched through Windsor, headed by their bands, and by five o'clock all had left for their respective quarters.

31. BANQUET AT THE MANSION HOUSE.—The Lord Mayor entertained Sir Garnet Wolseley and the officers of the Ashantee Force at a State banquet. There were about 260 guests. The Lord Mayor presided. On his left sat the Prince of Wales, the Duke of Cambridge, Prince Arthur, the Duke of Teck, Lord Cardwell, and other distinguished personages; on his right, Sir Garnet and Lady Wolseley, Sir Archibald and Lady Alison, and the Ambassadors present. Amongst the guests present were nearly all the officers engaged in the Ashantee Expedition. Sir Garnet, on his arrival, accompanied by Lady Wolseley, was enthusiastically welcomed, and the band played "See the Conquering Hero comes."

— STORMS AT SEA.—Terrible storms occurred on the Scotch and Irish coasts at the end of the month. The "Caspian," a Sunderland brig, having on board the captain, Robert Chambers, with his wife and a crew of eight men, struck on a rock, sixteen miles outside of Colonsay, and within a few minutes she was broken to pieces by the terrific seas. The exhausted crew were washed

from the deck, the captain leapt into the sea, but all were immediately drowned, with the exception of the master's wife and an A.B. named Joseph Bebb, who managed to hold on to a taffrail. The unfortunate woman's strength gradually failed her, however, and after drifting about an hour she was washed away and drowned. Cold, naked, and hungry, Bebb clung to the taffrail, and about mid-day he was drifted high and dry on a rock, where he was discovered in an exhausted condition by a farmer of the district and kindly attended to. No trace of the vessel or of the other men was found, but the dead body of Mrs. Chambers was subsequently discovered lying on a rock, and was buried on shore.

A Russian ship, laden with salt, was wrecked on the west side of Scarba Island, to the north of Jura; and out of eighteen hands on board only three were saved. It appears that the ship, dragging her anchors, was driven by the storm from Islay to Scarba. The sails were useless from their tattered and torn condition, and when the vessel was dashed on the precipitous shore of Scarba she immediately became a total wreck. The men used every endeavour to save their lives, but the back surf washed one by one away as they gained a footing on the rocks, until fifteen were drowned, including the two chief officers. The island, which is high and precipitous on all sides, is the property of Lieut.-Col. Gascoigne, of Craignish Castle, and, being stocked with deer, the only residents are a couple of gamekeepers, who live on the west side. The three shipwrecked men with great difficulty made their way over the rugged cliffs to the gamekeepers' house, in which they were received hospitably, and treated as well as circumstances would allow.

APRIL.

3. THE ASHANTEE OFFICERS.—Captains Glover and Sartorius landed at Liverpool from the Gold Coast this day (Good Friday). The time of their arrival having been uncertain there was no public demonstration, but they were, however, received by the authorities and entertained at the Town Hall. Captain Glover brought with him King Koffee's chair from Coomassie, which he presented to Mr. Charles Leigh Clare. Captain Sartorius had with him his faithful dog Belle, his constant companion throughout the campaign, which, among other feats, had captured an Ashantee in fair fight.

6. THE EASTER MONDAY display of field manoeuvres on Wimbledon Common by 12,000 men of the Volunteer Rifle Corps, with some of the Guards, Royal Artillery, and Carabineers of the regular army, was a holiday entertainment for nearly 100,000 London people. The forces collected were divided into a Northern and a Southern Army—the former supposed to belong to Middlesex, the

latter to Surrey. The first, consisting of four brigades, under command respectively of Colonel Lord Truro (4th Middlesex), Colonel Shipley, Colonel Hyde Page, and Colonel Hepburn (Scots Fusilier Guards), was headed by Prince Edward of Saxe-Weimar.

The Southern Army (that of Surrey), commanded by Colonel Stephenson, was in three brigades, under Lord Bury, Colonel Rich, C.B., and Colonel Lane Fox. Colonel Stephenson having taken up a position extending from Cæsar's Camp on the south of Wimbledon Common to beyond the windmill on the north, the Northern or Middlesex Army, numbering 7,000, under Prince Edward of Saxe-Weimar, marched from Hyde Park and over Hammersmith Bridge, and across Barnes Common, arriving in Richmond Park about noon. It was then determined that the Middlesex Army should attack the main position of the Surrey Army, which was at the Old Intrenchment, commanding both the descent from Richmond Park and a length of Kingston Road, from Kingston Hill on the south-west to Putney Bottom on the north-east. The attack commenced by the advance from the Robin Hood Gate of the first and fourth brigades, under cover of the fire of the Hon. Artillery Company's battery, which was got into an excellent position on the slopes between the park and Combe Wood. The enemy lost no time in replying to the four six-pounders of the Hon. Artillery Company; but skirmishers were thrown out from the 2nd and 7th Administrative Battalions of the Middlesex Rifles, from the 4th, 9th, and 18th Middlesex Rifles, all in the first brigade, and from the 26th, 36th, 37th, and 39th, in the second brigade. Those skirmishing parties crept down the descent and across the road; but they were opposed by a continuous rifle fire. So it went on till half-past three, when an attack was made upon the centre of the line, resulting in a sharp fusillade. Just then several fires were blazing away at different parts of the common, the furze having been ignited, and immense pillars of smoke rolled over the combatants, partially obscuring some and altogether concealing others. The battle had now been going on for nearly three hours. An important position on the left had been lost by the Southern force, while the Horse Guards and the Life Guards had succeeded in turning the right of Colonel Stephenson's line, and the Inns of Court Volunteer Corps were pressing forward with irresistible energy. The fact was that Prince Edward had advanced from Richmond Park by the Robin Hood Gate; that the Household Cavalry had turned the flank of the Surrey force, cutting off one squadron of the Carabineers; and that the Inns of Court Volunteers, with whom were brigaded the London Scottish and others, had taken the Southern force in flank. The 3rd London changed their front and opened fire upon the enemy, but unavailingly. At four o'clock the flanking operation on the right appeared to be completed; still the battle was anything but over on the left of Colonel Stephenson's line, where there was a rattling fusillade going on. This lasted

perhaps ten minutes longer; then it died away, and the battle of Wimbledon was over.

The umpires by no means gave the palm of victory to the Northern Army, although it appeared to many that Prince Edward had gained a complete victory. It seems, however, that the Carabineers took two of the enemy's guns, and that, owing to the immense crowd of spectators, the final movements ended rather confusedly. The fact was that the troops could not see each other on the right of Stephenson's line, and everything was done at haphazard.

After the mimic battle the troops were massed, and, after considerable delay, inevitable under the circumstances, they marched past. Amongst the spectators of this part of the spectacle were the Duke of Teck and the Princess Mary Adelaide.

A review and sham fight, of the troops and volunteers of the South-Eastern District, was also held at Dover.

— OUTBREAK AT PORTLAND PRISON.—The convict prison at Portland has been the scene of a fearful *émeute*. Two warders, Mitchell and Lisney, were conducting a gang of twelve prisoners from exercise to their cells, when simultaneously the convicts sprang upon the officers, who were felled to the ground. The convicts then commenced kicking them, struggling to get their swords; but two of the gang, correctly judging that murder was likely to follow, ran off and raised an alarm. Assistance arriving, the convicts, who by that time had inflicted desperate wounds on the officers, rushed into the hall and shut themselves in cells. Five got into one cell, the door of which they barricaded with sheet iron torn from the sides. The guard having been summoned, vigorous efforts were made to force the door of the cell, but without effect, the besieged greeting each unsuccessful effort with cheers. At length a parley took place, and the convicts consented to surrender on the promise of the Governor that the warders should be restrained from thrashing them.

8. WORCESTER CATHEDRAL.—Worcester was to-day given up to rejoicing and festivities in honour of the reopening of the cathedral, after undergoing complete restoration and ornate embellishment at the hands of Sir Gilbert Scott. The building has been under the control of architects and others for twenty years, and 100,000*l.* has been spent on it. The result is pronounced satisfactory in the extreme. Two opening services were held at 11 A.M. and 7 P.M., at which some 500 clergy attended, filling the choir, while the nave, aisles, and transepts were crowded with the select of the laity, admission being by ticket. The Bishop of Worcester preached in the morning, and the Bishop of Derry in the evening. The Mayor gave breakfast to the Corporation and the Freemasons of the province, and the Dean and Chapter entertained many distinguished visitors at the College Hall between the two services.

9. CONVICTIONS FOR PERJURY.—The pretended mate or steward of the "Osprey," whose evidence in favour of the Tichborne

Claimant appeared at one time to be so strong, Jean Luie, *alias* Carl Lundgren, and the *soi-disant* "Captain" Brown, who had also given evidence in his favour, were brought up to be tried for perjury at the Central Criminal Court. Strong remarks were made by the Judge, Mr. Justice Brett, in reference to the conduct of Lundgren's pretended friends, who, though withdrawing their aid, had not ceased from interference in the trial, but had practically deprived their unfortunate *protégé* of all defence whatever. The jury retired for twenty minutes before giving their verdict of "Guilty" in this case; but they did not leave the box when asked to decide the guilt or innocence of "Captain" Brown. The two men were placed side by side to receive sentence, which was—Lundgren to seven and Brown to five years' penal servitude.

14. FAMINE IN INDIA.—A public meeting of persons taking an interest in the people of India, and in the condition of the distressed districts, was held at the Mansion House this day, the Lord Mayor presiding. A letter was read from Lord Northbrook, in which he said it was impossible to doubt that, over and above all that Government could do, an ample field would be found for the beneficial employment of large private subscriptions, for this was found to be the case in the somewhat similar circumstance of the Irish famine. The moral and political advantage which was derived from the substantial expression of sympathy in England with distress in India was very great, and the exertions of the Mansion House committee would be widely appreciated by Her Majesty's Indian subjects. The Marquis of Salisbury, Secretary of State for India, moved the first resolution, which was to the effect that widespread and severe distress existed in India, and appealing to the people of this country to use all the exertions in their power to relieve it. Lord Lawrence, in seconding the resolution, feared that the sufferings of the people would be still greater than they now appeared to be, especially with the aged and the young; and considering the magnitude and extraordinary character of the calamity, he expressed regret that Parliament had not made a grant to alleviate so much distress. Amongst the subsequent speakers were Sir Charles Trevelyan, Professor Fawcett, and Lord Stanley of Alderley.

The sum collected by the Mansion House committee for the relief of the famine has up to this time amounted to about 100,000*l.*, including the sums raised at Manchester and Liverpool. A letter received from Mr. Schalch, the chairman of the Calcutta committee, stated that to the present that committee had received 150,000*l.*, the whole of which had been expended in the relief of the suffering inhabitants. Their operations had been confined to supplying assistance to the different local committees, the Government having undertaken the duty of providing for the general distress and the prevention of actual starvation.

— A TERRIBLE COLLIERY EXPLOSION took place to-day at the

Astley Deep pit, Dukinfield, near Manchester, by which fifty-one men and boys lost their lives. The pit is, with one exception, the deepest in England; the downcast shaft measures 681 yards, and branching to the north and south from the bottom of the shaft the workings extend 1,600 yards and upwards of 900 yards respectively. The number of men employed in the mine is about 400, and the work is conducted by day and night "shifts." About three o'clock in the afternoon, nineteen sets of eight men each, in all 152 men, descended the pit with the intention of working till twelve o'clock. The work of the mine was continued without any indication of anything being wrong, until about half-past seven o'clock, when a large portion of the roof which was being repaired fell in. This accident liberated a large quantity of gas, and almost immediately an explosion took place, the force of which blew the workmen engaged in the repairs some distance in the direction of the pit's mouth. The part of the workings where this explosion took place is about 700 yards long, and is known as the engine brow. About sixty men were at work here, and the effect of the explosion was to imprison them, the *débris* of the fallen roof blocking up the road to safety. The men at work in the other part of the pit were greatly alarmed by the explosion, and happily succeeded in making their way to the main shaft, whence they were rescued unharmed. The imprisoned colliers were unable to gain the main shaft in consequence of the fall of the roof and the engine brow, and a further obstacle was caused by the stables having taken fire. Many of the men, however, found their way to the return air-way, and were brought to the bank unhurt. The men who went to the aid of those who were confined in the pit had an arduous task before them. But the work was continued without intermission throughout the night, cages descending laden with relays of willing rescuers, or materials with which to carry out the labour necessary to reach the unfortunate colliers. It was found that the sides and roof of the pit were still falling inwards, and the flames were extending.

After several bodies of dead or dying men had been brought up, a ray of hope was afforded to the crowd at the pit's mouth that some of the men had been discovered alive. Dr. Robinson at once descended the shaft, taking with him restoratives, and in a very short time it was ascertained that ten men had been found alive in a part of the workings known as the Cannel Tunnel. They were sent up, and attended to as their circumstances required. By seven o'clock the bodies of all the missing miners, with five exceptions, were brought to the surface. Immediately after identification they were conveyed home in carts; and as each body was followed by a procession of weeping orphans, widows, and relatives, the scene was indescribable. Forty bodies lay together in the dead-house, most of them badly burnt and crushed, whilst some seemed to have succumbed to the after-damp.

Though of great depth and extent, the mine has been noted

for its freedom from gas, and naked lights have been authorised as perfectly safe; but by the disturbance consequent on a fall of roof a large accumulation of the noxious vapour was liberated, and the explosion ensued which has caused this deplorable loss of life. The total number of the killed was over fifty.

— **WITCHCRAFT IN DEVONSHIRE.**—An inquest has been held at Payhembury, near Honiton, on the body of a young married woman named Miffin, who had committed suicide by drowning herself in a pond near the vicarage. It was shown in evidence that during a visit to Taunton the deceased made the acquaintance of a woman who bore the reputation of being a "white witch." After her return she told her husband and several of her acquaintances that she had been "overlooked" by this woman. She continued in a state of nervous depression until the time when she committed suicide. The jury returned the usual verdict of "Temporary insanity." The coroner asked the jurors to do their best to disabuse their poorer neighbours of such superstitious nonsense as the belief in witchcraft, and they promised to do so. A week or two since a common case of assault was heard by the magistrates, in which the defendant attempted to justify herself by saying that the complainant had "overlooked" one of her children and caused its death. The plea did not, however, save her from a fine.

— **HYDROPHOBIA AMONG SHEEP.**—A sad calamity has befallen Mr. Hipwell, a farmer at Tolworth, in Surrey. About three weeks ago a stray dog got among a flock of sheep and lambs, and worried a score or more to death. Now it is found that the dog must have been mad, for numbers of the poor animals have since shown symptoms of hydrophobia, and have had to be knocked on the head or strangled. Mr. Hipwell has taken every precaution to prevent the spread of the terrible disease, and the carcasses are buried as killed; but it is greatly feared that a very heavy pecuniary loss will result to him, and, indeed, the full extent of the mischief can hardly be imagined.

15. **ARRIVAL OF DR. LIVINGSTONE'S BODY.**—At an early hour this morning the "Malwa," with the remains of Dr. Livingstone on board, was signalled from Hurst Castle, and about eight o'clock she arrived in Southampton Water. The body was landed amid every sign of respect from the shipping in the docks and from the local authorities, and, escorted by a procession, was conveyed to the railway station, the shops along the route being partially closed. The church bells rang muffled peals and minute-guns were fired. A special train was supplied by the London and South-Western Railway Company; and the remains, which were accompanied by the relatives and friends of the deceased traveller, were brought to London.

The body was received at the rooms of the Royal Geographical Society, where an examination was made by Sir William Ferguson. The identification was placed beyond doubt, the left arm

still showing traces of a fracture caused by the bite of a lion more than thirty years ago.

17. FATAL ACCIDENT AT THE ALEXANDRA PALACE.—An accident, attended with fatal consequences, has occurred at the Alexandra Palace, Muswell Hill. About twenty bricklayers and plasterers were at work upon a cornice near the centre transept, when the cornice gave way, carrying with it a portion of the wall and scaffolding, and precipitating the workmen to the ground, a distance of nearly forty feet. Two surgeons were quickly on the spot, and after having afforded temporary relief to nearly twenty of the poor fellows, the latter were conveyed to their homes close by. Several of the cases referred to were those of men working below, and, the scaffolding falling in upon them, one unfortunate man—a bricklayer's labourer—lost his life. He was picked up in a frightfully mutilated condition, and quite dead. Eight other cases were conveyed to St. Bartholomew's Hospital.

18. TRADE AND LABOUR.—Mr. T. Hughes, Q.C., has made an award in a dispute between the cutlers' firm of Rodgers, Sons, and Co., of Sheffield, and their workmen. The dispute was as to the payment of an extra penny in the shilling, which was given to the men when the trade was brisk. Owing to a collapse of the American trade, the men received notice of a penny being taken off, and they therefore struck work. The matter was referred to Mr. Hughes, who awarded in favour of the men. The decision is regarded as important, as it will affect the cutlers' trade generally.

The conciliatory proposal of Mr. Mundella, M.P., for attempting to settle the wages dispute in the Eastern Counties, which was accepted with commendable promptitude by the Labourers' Union, has been rejected. It is said to have been "indignantly scouted"—at all events it is disapproved of—by the farmers of the district. The lock-out continues, and is indeed extending, for field service is not just now greatly in demand.

The locked-out labourers are leaving the district in large numbers for Canada, Queensland, and other places. On the 14th the "Sussex," bound for New Zealand, set sail from the West India Docks, having on board about 400 emigrants, including agricultural labourers, mechanics, &c. On the 15th the "Hereford" and the "St. James" started from the East India Docks. These ships contained respectively about 400 and 500 emigrants, including agricultural labourers, mechanics, &c. The "Hereford," commanded by Captain Gardner, is bound for Canterbury, New Zealand. The "St. James," commanded by Captain Dunbar, is bound for Brisbane.

— REREDOS IN EXETER CATHEDRAL.—A handsome sculptured reredos, which has lately been put up at considerable expense by some members of the Chapter in Exeter Cathedral, has been pronounced illegal by the Bishop, on the advice of Mr. Justice Keating, who acted as his assessor. The case was argued with great ability by Mr. Phillpotts, on behalf of his father, the Archdeacon

of Cornwall (son of the famous Dr. Phillpotts, late Bishop of Exeter), who petitioned against the reredos; and by Dr. Deane, on behalf of the Dean and Chapter. The plea of the Dean and Chapter, that they were independent of the Bishop in these matters, was refuted by demonstration that the bishopric and the cathedral had co-existed for a couple of centuries before the deancry. As to the legality of the reredos, it was decided that the figures it contained were images, though only in alto relievo, and that, as embodying images, the reredos was illegal. The Bishop intimated that he would grant a faculty for any beautification of the cathedral conformable to law. The Dean and Chapter have notified their intention of appealing against the decision, and the work of restoration has been stopped until the question is set at rest. The case excites considerable interest in the ecclesiastical world, as most of the English cathedrals which have been restored of late years contain reredoses similar in character to that which has thus been condemned on legal authority.

— HIGH TIDES.—Captain Saxby's prediction that there would be another high tide in the Thames found few believers till Friday afternoon, the 17th, when a north-easterly wind again brought the water up to a great height, and in many of the low-lying districts caused no slight amount of damage. From Woolwich to Richmond there then appeared to be a simultaneous conviction in the minds of the waterside population that the next tide would, indeed, be high. Instant precautions were at once taken. Those who had suffered by the former flood removed their goods, temporary stores for the care of furniture were brought into requisition, and gangs of workmen were employed erecting barriers of wood and clay alongside the wharves and warehouses. In the low-lying districts few of the inhabitants of houses went to bed, preferring rather to watch the rise of the water, and on the embankments large numbers of persons were assembled to witness what promised to be a remarkable sight. Fortunately, however, before midnight the wind changed round to south-west, and at the time indicated for high water there was a good spring tide, but nothing extraordinary. Again, in the afternoon, with the wind south-west, there was a high tide, but no damage was done.

At Tynemouth an extraordinary accident occurred on the North Pier. There was no wind, and the sea was tranquil, when in a moment a high tidal wave broke over the promenade and swept among a crowd of Sunday visitors and residents. A gentleman and two ladies—a Mr. Couchman, Miss Milman, and Miss Grant—were dashed completely over the rails to the waggon way beneath. Mr. Couchman met with serious injuries, and the ladies were much hurt.

— THE LORD-LIEUTENANT OF IRELAND.—The Duke of Abercorn made his formal entry into Dublin to-day. At Kingstown an address of congratulation was presented by the Commissioners of that township; and at Westland Row Station his Grace received

a congratulatory address from the Lord Mayor and Corporation. The streets from Westland Row to the Castle were lined with military and filled with dense crowds, and the reception of the new Lord-Lieutenant is described as having been of a very cordial character. A State reception was held, on Monday, at the Castle, by the Duke for the purpose of receiving addresses from the Municipal Council and the University of Dublin. His Grace, in reply, expressed an opinion that the circumstances and position of the country were favourable for directing public attention to unexciting but useful measures of social improvement.

— FUNERAL OF DR. LIVINGSTONE.—The remains of the late Dr. Livingstone were deposited in Westminster Abbey to-day.

Previous to the ceremony at the Abbey a short preliminary service was performed at the Royal Geographical Society's house in Saville Row—where the body had remained since its arrival in London—by the Rev. H. W. Hamilton, minister of the Church of Scotland at Hamilton, N.B., where the family of the late Dr. Livingstone reside, and the services of which church he always attended when staying in Scotland. The coffin, which was of English oak, was very simply ornamented, and bore the following concise inscription:—

DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

Born at Blantyre, Lanarkshire, Scotland, March 19, 1813;

Died at Ilala, Central Africa, May 4, 1873.

The procession, formed by twelve mourning coaches, in addition to which there was a long line of private carriages, headed by those of Her Majesty and the Prince of Wales, went through St. James's Street, where a deputation of working men obtained permission to add, in the name of their order, a laurel wreath, with an appropriate inscription, to the other decorations on the coffin. It then proceeded by Pall Mall, Charing Cross, and Parliament Street, to the Broad Sanctuary, the large concourse which had gathered in the streets to see it, and which gradually grew denser towards the end of the route, reverently uncovering as it passed. Every available part of the Abbey was crowded by spectators. Shortly after one the funeral *cortège* arrived, and was met at the south door of the nave by Dean Stanley, Canon Leighton, Canon Conway, and the rest of the capitular and choral body, who sang the opening service to Dr. Croft's music as the coffin was borne into the choir.

The pall-bearers, eight in number, might be said to represent three distinct epochs in the great traveller's career:—First among them were Major-General Sir T. Steele and Mr. W. Oswell, who, in the earlier days of Livingstone's mission work, travelled and hunted with him in Africa. In conjunction with Mr. Oswell, after whom one of his sons is named, Livingstone discovered Lake Ngami. Towering a head and shoulders above all round was Mr. F. W. Webb, a kind of African Nimrod, while staying under whose

hospitable roof at Newstead Abbey the Doctor wrote his second book on Africa. The second period was represented by Dr. Kirk, Consul-General of Zanzibar, whose explorations and whose struggles to put down slavery are so well known; by the Rev. Horace Waller, who joined Bishop M'Kenzie's mission in 1860, and seconded that lamented prelate's and Livingstone's efforts to suppress slavery in the Shire Highlands; and also by Mr. E. D. Young, the navigating officer of the "Pioneer" on the Zambesi and Shire Rivers, who afterwards disproved the story of Livingstone's murder invented by Moosa and the other Johanna deserters. The third and last period was illustrated by Mr. H. M. Stanley, who so gallantly led the famous Relief Expedition to Ujiji. But among the pall-bearers the figure which appeared to excite most curiosity was Jacob Wainwright, the manumitted and Christianised young African, whose presence symbolised the beneficent work of the master whom he tended so faithfully to the last.

During the morning a beautiful wreath of azaleas and other choice flowers, with the inscription, "A tribute of respect and admiration from Queen Victoria," was sent by command of Her Majesty to deck the bier, already adorned by similar tributes from Lady Burdett Coutts, Lady Frere, Dr. Altschul, and others.

On Sunday afternoon Dean Stanley preached a funeral sermon in the Abbey to an immense congregation, amongst whom were the Rev. Dr. Moffatt, Mr. H. M. Stanley, and a large gathering of the members of the Geographical Society. Special sermons were also preached on the subject in many of the London churches and chapels of all denominations. The inhabitants of Hamilton celebrated the funeral on Sunday by a public service in the Town Hall, conducted by a number of the clergymen of the burgh. Between half-past twelve and half-past one o'clock the burgh bell was tolled, and the shops were generally closed. In Glasgow funeral peals were tolled from the city churches, and the Union Jack was suspended half-mast high from public buildings, as well as from the shipping in the harbour.

— "MAD LUCAS," the hermit who lived at Redcoats Green, between Stevenage and Hitchin, and whose idiosyncrasies formed the subject of a story by the late Charles Dickens, has just died of apoplexy, at the age of sixty. Lucas's house is situated between Ippollitts and Stevenage, and on the death of his mother, about twenty-five years ago, he barricaded himself in his large house, and has continued immured ever since. During that time he has lived literally in sackcloth and ashes, never wearing any clothes beyond a blanket, heaping up ashes in his dwelling room, and totally ignoring the use of soap and water. Some years ago Charles Dickens paid this notorious character a visit, and immortalised it in his "Tom Tiddler's Ground." "Mad Lucas" was an educated gentleman, and quite willing to "receive" and talk on public questions with visitors who chose to interview him through a back window of his living room, and gave their names

and condition. One day last week he was found insensible, grovelling in the ashes on the floor. He was removed in a cart to a farm close by. There was nothing in the shape of food about his miserable dwelling, with the exception of a few pieces of bread strewn about the floor, with a few gin bottles—some full, others empty. The house was found in a most dilapidated condition; the pictures had dropped from the wall, the chairs and tables were decaying, and part of the roof had fallen in. Nothing had been disturbed since the death of his mother.

23. THE QUEEN AND THE NAVAL BRIGADE.—The inspection by Her Majesty of the sailors and marines of the Royal Navy who so well bore their part, with three regiments of the Army, in the campaign against the Ashantees, was an interesting ceremony. It took place in the Royal Clarence Victualling Yard at Gosport. The sailors, the marines, and the Marine Artillery were drawn up on three sides of the square. On the south side were the seamen, 327 in number, with sixty-one officers, under Captain Walter Grubbe, C.B., who for some time commanded the Naval Brigade in the late campaign, and was wounded at the battle of Amoaful. On the west side were about 100 men, in four companies, of the Royal Marine Artillery, under Colonel F. W. Festing, C.B. On the north side were the Royal Marines, above 200, of the Portsmouth, Chatham, and Plymouth divisions, under Colonel de Courcy, C.B. The remaining space at the sides was occupied by a multitude of spectators. On the right of the Queen's raised platform were enclosed places for the municipal dignitaries, and for officers not on duty.

The Queen, attended by the two Lords of the Admiralty, and Princess Beatrice with the Duke of Edinburgh, walked along these lines of the brave seamen and marines, and looked upon them with gracious approval. Her Majesty was preceded by the naval aides-de-camp, Captain Sir John Commerell, Captain the Hon. H. Carr Glynn, and Colonel Williams, with Captain Prince Leiningen, Admiral Sir Rodney Mundy, General Sir Hastings Doyle, and the staff. Her Majesty bowed in passing the officers not on duty. When she had gone round, and took her place on the raised floor at the south side, the band of the Royal Marine Artillery came forward into the centre of the square, and the march past began. The sailors came first, the pioneers, who cleared the road to Coomassie, leading the way, and Captain Grubbe marching at the head of his men. They went by in "fours," for the ground was not large enough to admit the usual order in column of companies. Then came the Artillery of the Marines, headed by Colonel Festing, and the light infantry under Colonel de Courcy. These troops began their march in column of companies, but, on passing the saluting point, were compelled to break into "fours." When all had passed and the square was formed again as before, the First Lord of the Admiralty brought up the following officers for presentation to her Majesty:—Captain Percy Luxmoore, C.B., of the

"Druid;" Captain Parkyn, of the "Victor Emmanuel;" Captain Grant, of the "Himalaya," and Colonel de Courcy; also Colonel F. W. Festing, C.B. This gallant officer is now Sir Francis Festing, having been made a Knight of the Order of St. Michael and St. George.

24. FATAL ACCIDENT TO AN OXFORD PROFESSOR.—A fatal accident has deprived the University of Oxford of the services of Professor Phillips, whose name is so well known in connection with geological researches. He was leaving the rooms of Professor Mountague Bernard, with whom he had been dining, when his foot caught in the door matting, and he fell down a flight of stairs. Professor Phillips, who was seventy-three years of age, remained unconscious throughout the night, and died the following afternoon. At the coroner's inquest the Principal of Jesus College (Dr. Williams) said that he and Professor Phillips dined with Professor Mountague Bernard, and after dinner they went to an adjoining room to take tea. The deceased was walking a little before the witness, but they kept up a continuous conversation as they went along. On coming to the staircase, which was a broad one, with a slight aim on each side, and very steep, Dr. Williams said to Mr. Phillips, "Take care you don't fall backwards." The deceased turned his head half-way to see where he was going, and in doing so he slipped over the first step and fell to the bottom of the flight of fifteen stairs on to the stone floor below. The verdict was "Accidental death."

25. FATAL RAILWAY COLLISION.—An accident occurred on the Shrewsbury and Hereford line, near the village of Condover, by which one man was killed and eight or ten others were more or less seriously injured. The accident was occasioned primarily by the breaking of an axle of a goods van, coming from Hereford, which blocked one line of rails, necessitating the working of the traffic on a single line. The "break-down gang," as it is called, was telegraphed for to Shrewsbury, and was speedily despatched. The "gang" consisted of sixteen men, who travelled in a covered van, which was placed between the engine and tender, and a large crane weighing about fifteen tons. Shortly after they had passed Condover Station, where there is a sharp curve, they were met by a long and heavy goods train coming from Swansea on the up-line, and a frightful collision occurred, smashing engines, carriages, vans, trucks, &c., in a fearful manner, so that the ground for 100 yards or more was strewed with the wreck. The van was broken into splinters, and the men were thrown out. One was so seriously injured that he died in about an hour, and eight others were conveyed to the Salop Infirmary, one with both legs broken, and another with a broken arm, and all suffering from internal injuries, more or less severe.

MAY.

2. THE ANNUAL DINNER of the Royal Academy took place to-day, Sir Francis Grant presiding. The Prince of Wales made a speech, in the course of which he observed: "I am glad to take this opportunity of saying that I hope those gentlemen who have come to the Royal Academy on this occasion have not forgotten to look at one picture in the next room, which I think well deserves attention. It is numbered 142 in the catalogue, and is entitled 'Calling the Roll after an Engagement in the Crimea.' This picture, painted by a young lady who, I am given to understand, is not yet twenty-three, is deserving of the highest admiration, and I am sure she has a great future before her as an artist." The picture thus singled out by his Royal Highness is by Miss Thompson, and produced a great sensation when the Exhibition was opened.

— AN ESSEX VILLAGE BURNED.—Twenty-three cottages, besides a farmhouse and barns, forming nearly the whole of the village of Radwinter, in Essex, were burned down, the furniture in other cottages being more or less injured. The labourers and several little shopkeepers have lost almost everything, in some cases even their savings and clocks and watches, so rapidly did the fire spread from one thatched roof to another.

3. A NARROW ESCAPE.—A young woman named Reed, aged eighteen, living in Hertford, who left her home to go for a walk on Sunday afternoon, had a narrow escape. She did not return, and although the rivers in the neighbourhood were dragged and search made in every direction for four days, her mysterious disappearance remained wholly inexplicable, when some invalid Blue-coat boys, who were gathering flowers in Little Mole Wood, accidentally found her lying at the bottom of a gravel pit, between nine feet and ten feet deep. The poor girl was quite conscious, though in a state of extreme exhaustion. She states that she went into the wood for the purpose of gathering wild hyacinths, and fell backwards into the hole. She found herself quite unable to get out again. She called out as loudly as she could for help, but as there is no pathway in the wood, and the public road runs some thirty feet from the edge of it, her cries were unheard. In consequence she lay for four days and four nights without food. Notwithstanding the exposure and privation she has undergone, her life is not considered in danger, and she appears to be satisfactorily recovering from the effects of this extraordinary misadventure.

5. NEWMARKET SPRING MEETING.—The attendance was not large on the first day of the meeting, but on the Tuesday the weather had improved, and there was a great concourse, the Prince of Wales being among the spectators. The Two Thousand

Guineas Stakes was won by Lord Falmouth's Atlantic, Colonel Carleton's Reverberation coming in just behind.

9. OPENING OF THE CHELSEA EMBANKMENT.—The new Chelsea Embankment was opened by the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh, on behalf of the Queen, on May 9. The Royal party arrived in five carriages, and an address was presented to their Royal Highnesses by Col. Hogg, M.P., on behalf of the Metropolitan Board of Works, to which the Duke made an appropriate reply.

The designs for the Embankment were prepared by Mr. Bazalgette, but, owing to difficulties in raising the money, the work was not commenced until August, 1871. The Embankment wall is three-quarters of a mile in length, and the line has been laid out in such a way as to reduce the river to a nearly uniform width of 700 feet, the width having previously varied from that to 850 feet. The cost for the whole work, exclusive of expenditure for the purchase of property and compensation, has been about 134,000*l*.

To commemorate the completion of the Northern Thames Embankment the Queen was pleased to confer the dignity of Civil Knight Commander of the Bath on Colonel Hogg, M.P., chairman of the Metropolitan Board of Works, and upon Mr. Bazalgette, the engineer, who was already a Companion of the Order.

10. SUICIDE OF A GENTLEMAN.—Mr. Edward A. Foley, brother of the well-known sculptor, has committed suicide by throwing himself into the Regent's Canal, near the Zoological Gardens. Mr. Foley, whose residence and studio are at 39 Arlington Street, Mornington Crescent, had been in the habit recently of walking out late at night, and on this occasion left home shortly before twelve. About 2 A.M. a young man named Payne, on passing the Albert Road Bridge of the Regent's Canal, saw a man sitting in the centre of the iron railing of the bridge, with his legs dangling over the water. Payne had gone but a few yards further when he heard a loud splash in the water, and on turning round saw that the man had disappeared. He raised an alarm, but before Mr. Foley could be got out of the water he was dead. He was identified by his friends later in the morning at the St. Pancras Workhouse.

— TWO LADIES BURNT TO DEATH.—A most melancholy disaster by fire took place in Leicestershire to-day. Two young ladies, aged nineteen and seventeen, Miss Catherine and Miss Agnes Sergison, were on a visit to their uncle at Wethersel Hall, and about nine o'clock in the evening they were sitting in the dressing-room, with Mrs. and Miss Robertson, when, on passing the fireplace, Miss Agnes Sergison's dress, being of light material, caught fire. Her sister, who was similarly attired, rushed to her aid, and both were instantly enveloped in flames. The dresses of Mrs. and Miss Robertson, who went to their assistance, also caught fire, and the Misses Sergison were so badly burnt that they died the following night. Mr. Robertson, their uncle, was somewhat burned in his

attempt to rescue the young ladies; his injuries were not considered serious at the time, but having sufficiently recovered to be present at the consecration of Netherseal church, two or three weeks afterwards, he took cold, serious symptoms set in, and he died after a short period of intense agony, greatly aggravated by the effects of the burning.

12. ACCIDENT ON THE CALEDONIAN RAILWAY.—An accident, by which a number of passengers were injured, and considerable damage done to plant, occurred on the central section of the Caledonian Railway, nearly two miles south of the general station at Perth, on May 12. The mail train for London by the west-coast route left at half-past seven, and when in the middle of Moncrieffe Tunnel, which is about three-quarters of a mile in length, several of the carriages left the rails, causing the couplings to break, and parting the train in two. The first half of the train, with two or three of the carriages dragging off the rails, reached in safety the south end of the tunnel, on emerging from which it was discovered that the second half had been left behind. All the passengers in the first portion of the train escaped uninjured, but owing to the darkness of the tunnel some time elapsed before the state of those in the second half could be ascertained. The scene in the tunnel was very exciting. Cries for assistance were heard, and the passengers in the overthrown carriages were in terror lest another train should dash upon them before they were rescued. The wrecked portion of the train consisted of one first and one third-class carriage, a post-office van, a guard's van, and a horse-box. All were off the metals. The first-class carriage was unroofed and much smashed, and the whole of the passengers more or less injured. The third-class contained dogs, which escaped without injury. The official in the post-office van was cut on the head, and the mail bags were scattered in disorder. The conductor and guards were unhurt. Assistance having been obtained, the passengers were conveyed to the south end of the tunnel, where it was found that the wounds consisted of severe cuts and bruises. The up line was blocked, and traffic was continued on the down line. The evening mail from Perth to London by the east-coast route was delayed nearly four hours, being unable to get through the tunnel. Several of the wounded persons proceeded by it to Edinburgh, others were conveyed back in cabs to Perth. The cause of the accident is not known. At the place where the carriages first left the metals a rail was found broken, but it is not certain whether this caused the carriages to run off the line, or whether they had broken the rail in running off.

13. THE CZAR OF RUSSIA.—Gravesend was in a flutter of excitement this morning, and the river was gay with pleasure-craft and a squadron of ironclads, assembled to greet his Imperial Majesty the Czar of Russia, who was expected to land at the pretty riverside town which received his daughter so warmly when her Imperial Highness came to England as the bride of the Duke of

Edinburgh. But the "Derjava," with the Czar on board, ran aground whilst attempting to leave Flushing late the previous night. The Duke of Edinburgh was at hand in the Trinity yacht "Galatea;" but the efforts made by the "Galatea" and two Dutch steamers to tug the "Derjava" off the sand-bank were fruitless. There she lay all night. When she floated off next morning, Dover, instead of Gravesend, was chosen for the landing-place. To Dover, accordingly, the Prince of Wales proceeded with the Duchess of Edinburgh, Prince Arthur, and the Duke of Cambridge, in a special train from Charing Cross. The train drew up on the pier, which was so thronged with people that a way by the side of the train had to be cleared by the soldiers. Four or five miles off the yachts were well seen, steaming hard for the breakwater. First came the great "Derjava," her black hull high out of the water. On her port side steamed the "Galatea," for Sir Frederick Arrow had gone out again; on her starboard was a Dutch steamer, and the rear was brought up by the "Livadia."

Till the yachts came quite close the Royal party remained in the railway carriages, and it was twenty minutes past six before the "Derjava" arrived off the end of the breakwater. The Prince of Wales led the Duchess on board the Imperial yacht as soon as the necessary arrangements had been completed, and the Emperor embraced his daughter affectionately, and then turned to greet the Princes, and to receive Lord Torrington and the other gentlemen who were presented to him. When the luggage had been disembarked and placed in the train, the Emperor landed, and, with his daughter on his arm, and followed by the Princes and their suites, was conducted to the saloon carriage. The crowds cheered, and the guns of a Royal salute boomed from the old castle on the heights. The train stood waiting, and by the door of the carriage stood Mayor Pearce and the Dover Corporation. The Mayor read the address, prepared in the most approved form, and his Majesty graciously acknowledged it in a few words, received it, and handed it to the Grand Duke Alexis. The Emperor and Princes and the now largely increased following having entered the carriages, the train moved away, the troops saluting, the band playing, and the spectators cheering.

His Imperial Majesty arrived at Windsor Castle at twenty-five minutes past ten, and was received by the Queen and the Princesses at the grand entrance to the Castle.

14. A GALLANT RESCUE was achieved by a "Worcester" cadet this afternoon. A few of the cadets were returning to the ship after their run on shore, when one of their number, Frederick Napier, while waiting for the ship's boat to convey them on board, slipped off the pier into deep water, and, being unable to swim, was in danger of drowning. There happened at the time to be no one on the landing-stage but the boys themselves, and one of the cadets, George Campbell Gordon, threw off his jacket and shoes and gallantly plunged into the river to rescue his comrade.

No pierman or waterman being near to render any assistance, Gordon managed with difficulty to hold up Napier, and to swim with him to a boat, and, notwithstanding the strong ebb tide running at the time, succeeded in getting into the boat himself, but was too exhausted to drag his comrade in. He, however, held on to Napier until the other cadets had obtained assistance, when both were saved.

16. DISTRIBUTION OF MEDALS TO ASHANTEE SOLDIERS.—Seven officers and sixteen men, from various regiments serving on the Gold Coast, arrived at Windsor, and marched from the Victoria Street Barracks, headed by a Scotch piper, to the Castle, for the purpose of receiving each a medal for distinguished services in the Ashantee War. On arriving at the Quadrangle they were met by General F. H. Ponsonby, who conducted them to the presence of the Queen, in the Grand Corridor of the Castle, when Her Majesty presented each soldier with a distinguished conduct medal, and thanked them for their services and bravery in the late war. The men were then entertained at the Castle with luncheon, after which they returned through the town to the barracks, and in the afternoon left by rail for their respective regiments.

— RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.—A terrible railway collision occurred at the Great Western Station at Merthyr this afternoon, by which fifty-two persons were injured, several of them severely. For about two miles from the station the line is on an incline, at the top of which there is a tunnel nearly two miles long. A train of twenty-five laden coal waggons was running upwards through the tunnel, when a coupling broke, and twenty-two of the waggons, becoming detached, started backwards towards the town, increasing in speed as they went on. At this time a passenger train belonging to the Brecon and Merthyr line was drawn up in the station. The runaway trucks, now going at express speed, dashed into this train, forcing it across the platform at the end of the terminus, through the wall, and across a public road, where it dashed the carriages entirely to pieces, with the exception of one composite compartment in the centre. The extrication of the passengers was a work of much difficulty and danger, and the scene was one of wild confusion. When the sufferers were got out it was found that over fifty were more or less severely hurt, the majority of them being ladies. The engine-stoker of the passenger train jumped off, but the driver was unable to do so, and stood on the foot-plate at the time of the crash. He, however, escaped with a few bruises, though carried through the wall of the station.

Three days later, the gallant "Black Watch," after escaping the fevers of Ashantee and the bullets of the foe in a distant land, had a narrow escape of being annihilated at home. The regiment, consisting of eight companies—23 officers, 532 men, and three horses—had been to Aldershot to take part in the review before the Emperor of Russia on May 19, and in the evening they were returning to Portsmouth in a special train. The train consisted

of two first-class, eighteen second and third-class carriages, three brake-vans, and a horse-box, and prior to starting the whole of the wheels were tested and found to be sound. The train left Aldershot at 6.5 P.M., and soon after passing Bentley distance-signal one of the axles of a second-class carriage broke, the wheel dropped off, and the oscillation caused six other carriages to leave the rails. The accident was, of course, discovered almost immediately, and the locomotive inspector, with great forethought, adopted measures which, without doubt, had the effect of saving a large number of lives. Instead of stopping the train at once, he took off the brake and put on a little steam and kept the train forward—a proceeding which had the effect of preventing the carriages in the rear of those which had been immediately affected by the accident crushing upon those in front. After running about 600 yards in this way, the train was pulled up. An examination of the train was at once made, when it was found that the carriage with the broken axle had been penetrated at the end by the buffers of the next carriage, the result being that two of the men inside—viz., Colour-Sergt. Cooper and Private Buchan—had been seriously injured, the former about the feet, and the latter about the legs. The surgeon of the regiment was in attendance immediately, and the injured men were removed to a first-class carriage, and cared for as well as circumstances would permit. The line was then cleared without delay, and six carriages were found to be in so shattered a condition as to render it necessary to leave them behind, together with a brake-van. The rails were found to have been torn up for some considerable distance. The sound portion of the train, after a delay of about an hour and a quarter, proceeded at a speed of about five miles per hour to Alton, where a thorough examination of the whole of the axles and wheels was made. The train afterwards proceeded to Bishopstoke, and reached Portsmouth in safety about 10.35.

18. A DOMESTIC TRAGEDY AT THE EAST END.—A terrible tragedy has occurred in Joseph Street, Bow Common. No. 49 in this street was occupied by John Blair, a bricklayer, who had a wife and four children. On the morning of May 18 it was noticed by several neighbours that the house was not open as usual. Information having been given, the police went to the house, and, after knocking for some time to no purpose, effected an entrance by breaking open the back door. On going to the front room upstairs they found the bodies of the wife and baby on a bed, with their throats cut from ear to ear. Between the foot of the bedstead and a toilette table was the body of the man, who had died from similar wounds. The bodies of the three other children, each with a horrible gash in the throat, were found on beds in the adjoining room. One was twelve years of age, another seven, and another five. They had also been struck on the head with a blunt instrument. The throat wounds seemed to have been inflicted by a carving knife or a razor. No doubt is entertained that Blair

murdered his wife and children and then committed suicide. His body was warm, whereas all the others were cold. He had been out of employment for a fortnight, and during that time had been drinking excessively. The coroner's jury returned a verdict that Blair was suffering from an attack of *delirium tremens*; that while in that state he murdered his wife and children, and committed suicide; and that he was not responsible for the acts so committed.

21. DEPARTURE OF THE RUSSIAN EMPEROR.—We must here give a brief chronicle of the entertainments which have been offered to our Imperial guest during his short stay amongst us. Thursday the 14th was spent at Windsor, and ended with a grand State banquet given in St. George's Hall. Her Majesty and the Emperor and the members of the Royal Family were present. A hundred and twenty guests, comprising several of Her Majesty's Ministers, the late Ministers, and the principal nobility were invited.

On Friday morning, at eleven o'clock, the Emperor and Grand Duke, having taken leave of the Queen, left Windsor for London. They were accompanied by the Prince and Princess of Wales, the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh, Prince Arthur, and the Duke of Cambridge. On arriving in London, his Majesty and their Royal Highnesses drove to Buckingham Palace, where the Czar was received by Earl Beauchamp, Lord Steward; the Marquis of Hertford, Lord Chamberlain; and other high officers of the Queen's household. The Earl of Bradford, Master of the Horse, had met him at Paddington. There was a guard of the Scots Fusiliers in the courtyard, and the Yeomen of the Guard, under Lord Skelmersdale, in the hall. An hour after his arrival the Czar received all the foreign Ambassadors in the Bow Drawing-Room. The Cabinet Ministers of the present and late Governments were afterwards received by him, and several other noblemen and gentlemen. In the evening, his Majesty dined with the Prince and Princess of Wales at Marlborough House. He afterwards went with them to a ball given at Stafford House by the Duke and Duchess of Sutherland.

The Emperor on Saturday morning at eleven went to Chiselmhurst, with his son, to visit the widowed Empress Eugénie. He got back to London between twelve and one; then went to see the Houses of Parliament and Westminster Abbey. The Lord Chancellor, the Speaker, and the Dean of Westminster, at those places respectively, met his Majesty. He lunched at Buckingham Palace; and started at five o'clock for the Crystal Palace, with the Prince and Princess of Wales, the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh, and a numerous suite. They went in twelve open carriages by the high road, over Vauxhall Bridge, and through Stockwell and Clapham, with an escort of the 6th Dragoon Guards. His Majesty and their Royal Highnesses wore plain morning dress; the Princesses were in blue, the one dark blue, the other light. They were received at the Crystal Palace by Mr. T. Hughes, chair-

man of the Crystal Palace Company, Mr. Wilkinson, general manager, and Major Flood Page, secretary.

The Emperor, Princesses, and Princes, arriving at six o'clock, were at once conducted up the nave to the Royal boxes prepared for them, upon the stage of the theatre in the central south transept, opposite the Handel orchestra. The floor beneath, the orchestra benches, and the galleries, were completely filled with company. The Russian Hymn was performed by the combined force of eleven military bands. His Majesty sat between the Princess of Wales, on his right hand, and his daughter, on the other side of him. The Russian and English flags, suspended from the galleries above, bore token of this occasion. There was a grand concert of choice music, with which the Emperor was greatly pleased, and Mr. Manns, the conductor, was introduced to him. His Majesty sent a message by telegraph to the Queen, saying how much he liked his welcome in London. He got an answer from Her Majesty during the concert. He sent another telegram to the Empress, at St. Petersburg.

After the concert, the Emperor and their Imperial and Royal Highnesses stood a few minutes on the balcony overlooking the gardens, and saw the great fountains play. His Majesty and party then dined in the State saloons, where tables were laid for a hundred guests. With the Emperor and Grand Duke, at the high table, were the two Princesses, the English and German Princes, the Earl of Bradford, and several of the Russian nobles. At nine o'clock in the evening they again came out on the balcony, and saw the display of fireworks, which was extremely brilliant. The great fountains were set playing in the light of 600 Roman candles. There was a "cascade of golden fire," and a concluding blaze of 1,600 coloured rockets.

Sunday was a day of comparative rest. On Monday, the 18th, the Czar paid a State visit to the City of London.

The procession from Buckingham Palace consisted of eleven of the Queen's State carriages, with the Royal servants in their State livery. The last carriage was occupied by the Emperor, the Prince of Wales, and the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh. His Majesty wore a Russian General's uniform, with the blue ribbon of the Garter, and a row of small crosses and medals on his breast. The Royal party could be seen well in the streets, all the carriages in which they sat being open. The escort was formed of the 2nd Life Guards. The Grenadier Guards furnished a guard of honour at the departure from Buckingham Palace, and at Guildhall when the procession arrived. The streets within the City, from Temple Bar to Guildhall, were lined with soldiers, the Guards and the 4th Infantry. The cross roads were kept by parties of the Horse Guards.

The Emperor was received at the Guildhall by the Lord Mayor and the civic dignitaries, the Recorder reading the address of welcome, to which the Emperor read the following reply:—

"My Lord Mayor and Citizens of London,—I feel most grateful for your hospitable and cordial reception. On my own part, I can assure you that I have a firm reliance on your good feelings towards my beloved daughter, whose domestic happiness I have so much at heart. I trust that, with the blessing of Divine Providence, the affectionate home she finds in your country will strengthen the friendly relations now established between Russia and Great Britain, to the mutual advantage of their prosperity and peace."

A sumptuous repast followed. In the evening the Royal party attended a grand concert at the Albert Hall.

There was a review of the troops at Aldershot on Tuesday. The Emperor and Princess and two Princesses went down there by railway, starting from Vauxhall station about ten o'clock. The number of troops was 15,000, with forty-eight guns. His Majesty got back to London at six, and there was a State ball at Buckingham Palace in the evening.

Woolwich Arsenal and a great Artillery Review on Woolwich Common were the exhibitions for his Majesty's pleasure on Wednesday. In this review there were six batteries of Horse Artillery and ten of Field Artillery, comprising ninety-four guns. The Emperor and Royal party lunched at the Royal Artillery Barracks. After their return to London, they were entertained by the Earl and Countess of Derby with a grand dinner at the Foreign Office. Later in the evening, the Countess had a reception.

The departure of his Majesty from England finally took place on Thursday, embarking at Gravesend, about two in the afternoon, on board the Imperial yacht. The Emperor was accompanied to Gravesend by the Prince and Princess of Wales, Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh, and Duke of Cambridge. From the railway station to the pier the Imperial party were escorted by a troop of the 7th Hussars, under Captain Prince Arthur, and as the Emperor entered the Russian corvette "Vitiaz," the Russian National Anthem was struck up by the Marines Band on board the "Triumph," whilst the guns of all the ships thundered a salute.

25. WHIT MONDAY.—The holiday-making which, more than ever, has become the principal characteristic of Whitsun Monday in London was sadly interfered with by a violent storm. The early morning was fine and dry, and a number of well-filled trains were despatched by the principal railway companies to various seaside and other popular resorts; the suburban traffic by road was considerable, and the steamboats up and down the river were heavily laden. The rain, which commenced about noon and lasted till nearly six o'clock, was accompanied, during a great portion of the time, by a storm of thunder and lightning, and was a great blow and disappointment to those who set out to enjoy the holiday. The streets, usually so crowded on Whit Monday between noon and evening, were literally deserted in the afternoon, and all the outdoor places of recreation and amusement suffered a large dimi-

nution, in the usual number of visitors, while the theatres, music-halls, and the various other places of indoor entertainment were crowded to inconvenience.

The storm which spoiled the pleasure of the holiday-makers was attended by several fatal occurrences.

At Hackney a number of people took refuge at the White House and the White Hart at Temple Mills. In the gardens of the latter house there is an old tree of gigantic dimensions, which has had fitted up in its branches seats and tables for refreshments; the approach is by a ladder. Under this tree an old man and his grandchild were standing when the first flash of lightning occurred. It struck the man to the ground dead, and severely injured the child. The body of the old man was taken up and conveyed to the Hackney dead-house, and the child, who was six years of age, was removed to the workhouse. The lightning appears to have struck the latter on the shoulder, and to have passed straight down his right side to the calf of the leg. The old man was struck on the head, his hat being cut into ribbons; except the brim, which was uninjured. His hair and whiskers were scorched, and his clothing was burnt through, but his features were not in any way distorted.

A man and a boy were also killed by the lightning at East Malling, near Maidstone.

The farm premises of Mr. John Ginger, Field End Farm, near Berkhamstead, were struck by lightning, and the whole of the farm produce and buildings were destroyed. Mr. Ginger's sister was seriously ill in the house, but was rescued before it was burnt down. Damage was done to the amount of several thousand pounds.

30. LOSS OF HER MAJESTY'S SHIP "NIOBE."—The American papers publish the following despatch, dated Halifax, N.S., May 30, 1874, giving the particulars respecting the loss of *H.M.S. "Niobe,"* on Cape Blanc, Island of Miquelon:—

"The '*Niobe*' left Halifax for St. Pierre, intending to communicate with the French naval officer at that place before proceeding on a fishing cruise. A thick fog was experienced the whole passage, and the consequence was she was unable to reach St. Pierre Roads. On May 20 she came to anchor on the west side of Sandy Neck, joining the Great and Little Miquelon Islands; but finding the anchorage not a desirable one, and from the state of the weather thinking it possible, notwithstanding the fog, to reach Miquelon Roads, or even St. Pierre, by rounding the north end of the Miquelon Islands, Commander Boyle ordered the anchor to be weighed and steamed northward, keeping the land in sight and being apparently on the edge of the fog bank, which was denser seaward. At about ten minutes past 9 A.M. breakers were reported ahead. The screw was stopped and reversed, but the ship soon after struck on Cape Blanc, on the north side of Miquelon Island, and, owing to the heavy sea, soon became a total wreck. The

boats were got out, and all hands but one, who was unfortunately drowned in landing, were safely landed by half-past six o'clock P.M. the same day. Three men were washed out of a boat by the sea, two of whom reached the shore, the other, referred to above, being drowned. At the time the 'Woodlark' left the 'Niobe' had fallen over, and had water in her up to her lower deck beam. The crew are still at Miquelon Island, stripping the vessel and saving everything possible. They are all well housed, and have been provisioned. The 'Niobe' was about eight years old, and was the vessel which, under the command of Sir Lambton Loraine, stopped the massacre of the 'Virginus' prisoners at Santiago de Cuba."

JUNE.

2. LAUNCH OF A TWIN-SHIP.—The twin-ship "Castalia," the first of the fleet being built for the English Channel Steamship Company, was launched to-day from the dockyard of the Thames Ironworks and Shipbuilding Company at Blackwall. A large and distinguished company assembled at the invitation of the directors of the company to witness the launch, and the vessel was christened by Lady Granville.

The steamer is 290 ft. long, and consists of two half-hulls, divided lengthways, each 17 ft. beam, built 26 ft. apart and joined by strong girders, which form the framework of a superstructure 183 ft. long and 60 ft. wide, extending to the outside of either hull, and affording ample space for saloons and other accommodation. The engines are being constructed by Messrs. J. & A. Blyth, of 260-horse power nominal collective, and they will be placed one in each hull, the paddles working in the intermediate space between them. Both ends of the steamer are alike, and fitted with double rudders, so that the necessity of turning in harbour is entirely obviated. The main object, however, of Captain Dicey, the designer and patentee of this twin-ship, has been to prevent the rolling motion, which is the principal cause of sea-sickness. As it is a matter of notoriety that native vessels in Southern India and elsewhere which are constructed upon a somewhat similar principle, with an outrigger consisting of a cigar-shaped log fixed parallel to their side, at a distance of about 20 ft., are exceedingly steady, it is expected that this steamer will realise this object to a great degree, and for that reason alone the scheme will highly recommend itself to the bulk of British tourists.

3. EPSOM RACES.—A welcome rain, which during the early hours of the day interrupted the long spell of dry weather we have been going through lately, made the Derby Day on Epsom Downs a very enjoyable holiday for the thousands who by road and rail journeyed thither from the Metropolis. The crowd was much

greater than that of last year, although the weather was on that occasion equally favourable. There was a respectable field, though, according to general estimation, less respectable in quality than in quantity. The horses came to the goal in the following order:—

Mr. Cartwright's George Frederick, by Marsyas—Princess of Wales (Custance)	1
Lord Rosebery's Couronne de Fer	(Chaloner) 2
Lord Falmouth's Atlantic	(T. Osborne) 3

A capital start was effected at the second attempt, King of Tyne and Volturmo at once showing in front. After going a quarter of a mile Tipster took the lead; but at the mile-post the above-named pair again passed him, and Ecossais went into third place. Nearly the same order was maintained down the hill; but as soon as they entered the straight, Custance sent George Frederick along and took up the running, Couronne de Fer and Rostrevor being his immediate attendants. Nothing, however, had the least chance with Mr. Cartwright's horse, who, passing the Tattersalls enclosure, came right away, and won in a canter by two lengths from Couronne de Fer. Atlantic finished very strongly, and was only beaten a neck for second place, being the same distance in front of Leolinus, nearly in a line with whom were Trent, Aquilo, and Rostrevor, the quartet being just clear of Mr. Savile's filly. All the rest were beaten a long way, Reverberation, who broke down, being about last. Custance thus won his third Derby, and it was clear that the best horse in the Heath House stable had been sold, for we doubt if Atlantic's accident affected his running. Ecossais looked very formidable for about a mile; and Glenalmond was the only one of the favourites who thoroughly disgraced himself, for he stayed no better than the majority of the Blair Athols, and, moreover, could never go the pace. George Frederick's antecedents are not those of a Derby winner; but it is clear that Mr. Cartwright had laid himself out solely for this race, and the horse had never previously been fit to run. The defeat of Lady Glenorchy in the Stanley Stakes by Pope Joan was the only noticeable feature in the minor races of the day. There was, however, a scrimmage at the start, which gave the winner a lead of a couple of lengths, and her jockey took full advantage of it.

The weather on the 5th, the Oaks Day, was equally favourable, and there was a large and fashionable attendance. The race was as follows:—

Mr. Launde's ch. f. Apology, by Adventurer—Mandragora (J. Osborne)	1
M. Lefèvre's ch. f. Miss Toto, by Lord Clifden—Baroness (Fordham)	2
Mr. East's b. f. Lady Patricia, by Lord Clifden—Lady Langford (J. Goater)	3

5. THE NEW AIR MACHINE for the better ventilation of the House of Commons has just come into operation for the first time. By means of this apparatus a constant supply of air, cooled to any required degree, even in the warmest weather, can be supplied at the rate of from 60,000 to 90,000 gallons per minute. The House contains about 900,000 gallons of air, so that when the apparatus

is working at its maximum it is possible to renew the air without sensible draught every six minutes. Previously, when the windows were opened, the air used to rush in and escape in part through the roof without providing a proper supply for the occupants of the chamber. The temperature then rose, and the result was directly the reverse of what was expected. The improved mode of ventilation is quite independent of open windows and of the fans (formerly in use), which were objectionable on account of draughts and dust. It is hoped, from experiments that have been made with the use of cotton wool, that it will be possible to supply comparatively pure air during the prevalence of the densest fog.

9. GREAT FIRE IN BERMONDSEY.—One of the largest fires that has occurred in the south of London for some time past broke out to-day in the extensive block of buildings belonging to Mr. E. Ellis, tanner, &c. The premises, which were four floors high, covered a large area, and were situated in Horsey Lane, Bermondsey, a densely-populated locality, crowded with lofty buildings used as tanneries, &c. The building in question, besides containing several workshops, had manufactory, show-rooms, and drying-rooms, &c., which at the time of the outbreak were filled with many thousand pounds' worth of property. By the time the first engine arrived the flames had obtained such a firm hold on the building that all hopes of saving any portion were lost, and the only course taken was to save the adjoining establishments, which were threatening every minute to become ignited. Although many tons of water were thrown per minute into the burning pile, the flames continued to rage furiously for upwards of three hours, and before they could be extinguished the place was entirely gutted and the roof burnt off. The premises on either side were also much damaged by fire, water, &c. The disaster, it is understood, was caused through the overheating of a drying stove.

10. THE STATUE OF JOHN BUNYAN, presented by the Duke of Bedford to the town which bears his name, was unveiled by Lady Augusta Stanley on this day. The town honoured the occasion by decorating, and at night by illumination. The statue, which has been placed on St. Peter's Green, is of bronze, by Boehm, and is universally admired. The inscription is carved in the granite pedestal, and is singularly appropriate. Lying at the feet of Bunyan is the chain struck from his legs, and on the panel underneath is the autograph of "Bunyan." Medallions representing scenes from the "Pilgrim's Progress" form a pleasing relief to the pedestal, which, with the statue, is about 9 ft. high. A procession was formed at the Shire Hall, and the Mayor of Bedford and the Dean of Westminster, on arriving at the statue, were loudly cheered. The Mayor briefly addressed the assembly, and the statue was then unveiled amid the hearty cheers of the spectators.

Later in the day a meeting was held in the Exchange, when Dean Stanley delivered an address, selecting as his text Bunyan's

words—"As I walked through the wilderness of this world, I lighted on a certain place where there was a den."

Earl Cowper, the Rev. Dr. Brock, and Dr. Allon also spoke, and in the evening a lecture was delivered by the Rev. Mr. Birrell, of Liverpool. The Mayor entertained upwards of seventy guests at a banquet, and the day concluded with a display of fireworks.

— **SILVER MEDALS GRANTED.**—A General Order issued from the Horse Guards states that the Queen has been graciously pleased to signify her pleasure that a silver medal should be granted to all Her Majesty's forces who were employed on the Gold Coast during the operations against the King of Ashantee, with a clasp in the case of those who were present at Amoaful and the actions between that place and Coomassie (including the capture of the capital), and of those who, during the five days of those actions, were engaged on the north of the Prah in maintaining and protecting the communications of the main army. The medals are to be given to all officers and soldiers who served on the Gold Coast between June 9, 1873, and February 4, 1874, inclusive; or who, during that period, or for any portion of that period, were on board ship on the coast.

13. **HORSE AND DOG SHOWS.**—The eleventh annual Horse Show, which was held in the Agricultural Hall, Islington, during the week, afforded an attraction to numerous buyers and sight seers. The number of horses of all kinds exhibited was about 400, being as many as accommodation can be found for in the hall.

The third day of the show was honoured by the visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales and the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh. Previous to their arrival the public who filled the immense building were amused with an interesting game of polo. After some very clever play the first prize was awarded to the Hon. T. Fitzwilliam, who rode his own pony, a very beautiful brown called Cockem.

Besides the usual prizes for horses, one was offered for ponies in pair harness, of which some beautiful specimens were exhibited. In this class was the Russian pair about which there has been so much curiosity, the perfectly matched and faultlessly symmetrical animals having been entered by the Duke of Edinburgh. From Vostryack and Vorou, however, the spectators began to look doubtfully to other pairs in competition—to Mr. Lear Drew's Roumania and Wallachia, a brilliant pair of chestnuts, for example; to Mr. Lawrence's Victor and Hector; but most of all to Mrs. Henry Frisby's Prince Polo and Princess Polo, a dark and light grey, so well contrasted as to appear almost like black and white stepping harmoniously together. No favour was shown by the judges; for though Mr. Frisby was heard to avow his frank opinion that the Duke of Edinburgh's pair stepped most perfectly, and, on the whole, deserved the chief distinction, this was given to his wife's greys, the Duke coming second, and Mr. Charles Lawrence third.

The fifth annual Dog Show took place at the Crystal Palace,

and nearly 1,200 dogs were exhibited, several of very superior quality.

16. THE UNIVERSITIES.—Cambridge Commencement was celebrated with more display than usual. The proceedings are generally of a merely formal character; but this year, as the Cavendish Laboratory was opened, the donor being the Chancellor of the University, his Grace paid a visit to Cambridge to receive the thanks of the senate for his munificent gift, and the occasion was made the opportunity for conferring honorary degrees upon the following distinguished persons:—The Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, Sir Bartle Frere, Sir William Stirling Maxwell, M.P., Sir Charles Lyell, Sir James Paget, Sir Garnet Wolseley, the Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, Dr. Salmon, Dr. Stokes, Mr. E. A. Freeman, M. Leverrier, Professor Greenwood, Mr. Bentham, Mr. Lassell, and Mr. James Russell Lowell. The Lord Chief Justice and Sir Garnet Wolseley had an enthusiastic reception. The prize poems were afterwards recited, and in the evening the Master and Fellows of Trinity College entertained a large company at dinner in the college hall.

At Oxford, the Encœnia, or commemoration of founders and benefactors to the University, was held on the following day in the Sheldonian Theatre, when the degree of D.C.L. *honoris causâ* was conferred upon the following persons:—The Right Hon. Sir George Mellish, one of the Lords Justices of Appeal; Major-General Sir Garnet Joseph Wolseley, K.C.B., G.C.M.G.; Sir Thomas Erskine May, K.C.B., Clerk of the House of Commons; and Victor Carus, Professor of Comparative Anatomy and Zoology in the University of Leipsic. The undergraduates in the gallery were rather more noisy than usual. In the evening the annual ball was held at the Corn Exchange, and there was a concert at Magdalen.

— THE ASCOT MEETING.—Notwithstanding a bitter wind on the first day of these races the attendance was very large, and the Royal procession more brilliant than usual, as the Prince and Princess of Wales, the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh, the Duke of Connaught, Prince and Princess Christian, and the Duke and Duchess of Teck drove up the course prior to the first race. The Maiden Plate, for two-year-olds, was won by *Salamanca*, a powerful bay colt, which was purchased by Mr. Houldsworth for 1,300 guineas, at the sale of Sir Joseph Hawley's stud last year. The Prince of Wales's Stakes was virtually reduced to a match between the stable companions, *Atlantic* and *Leolinus*, in which the latter was victorious. The Ascot Stakes was not a particularly interesting race, as the class of animals that started was decidedly "below par." Once more two stable companions were first and second; but whereas *Feve* (6 st. 10 lb.) was a strong favourite, *Coventry* (6 st. 3 lb.), the winner, was allowed to start at 20 to 1. In the Queen's Stand Plate *Blenheim* beat *Prince Charlie*, and won easily by two lengths.

The racing on Wednesday was not of any special interest; on the 18th, the Cup day, the attendance was again very large, the Royal party coming in the same State as on the first day. The St. James's Palace Stakes, with which the proceedings commenced, was won, after a fine race, by Leolinus, the succeeding event, the Eleventh Biennial, being carried off by the outsider Cambysses, the favourite, Colonel, being able to get no nearer than third. Then six weighed out for the Cup, the great event of the week, and the excitement became intense. Boiard maintained the position of favourite to the end, although each of the other competitors met with substantial support at their quoted prices. Boiard, however, won at the finish, with something to spare; Doncaster and Flageolet running a dead heat for second place.

20. FATAL GUN ACCIDENT.—A shocking gun accident has occurred near Ashburton, Devon. James Honeywill, a labourer, had been shooting birds, and on his return home placed a capped and loaded gun in the corner of the kitchen. Shortly afterwards his wife came home, accompanied by her brother, a lad named Champion, aged about twelve years. The latter, seeing the gun, took it up, saying, "I wonder whether it is loaded?" Just as he uttered the words the gun exploded. The charge passed through a baby which Mrs. Honeywill was carrying in her arms, killing it instantly, and then entered the mother's breast, inflicting injuries from which she died shortly afterwards.

22. CRUELTY TO ANIMALS.—On the occasion of the jubilee meeting of the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, the President (Lord Harrowby) announced that he had received the following letter from the Queen, through Sir Thomas Biddulph:—

"My dear Lord,—The Queen has commanded me to address you, as President of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, on the occasion of the assembly in this country of the foreign delegates connected with your association and of the jubilee of the society, to request you to give expression publicly to Her Majesty's warm interest in the success of the efforts which are being made at home and abroad for the purpose of diminishing the cruelties practised on dumb animals. The Queen hears and reads with horror of the sufferings which the brute creation often undergo from the thoughtlessness of the ignorant, and she fears also sometimes from experiments in the pursuit of science. For the removal of the former the Queen trusts much to the progress of education, and in regard to the pursuit of science she hopes that the entire advantage of those anæsthetic discoveries from which man has derived so much benefit himself in the alleviation of suffering may be fully extended to the lower animals. Her Majesty rejoices that the society awakens the interest of the young by the presentation of prizes for essays connected with the subject, and hears with gratification that her son and daughter-in-law have shown their interest by distributing the prizes. Her

Majesty begs to announce a donation of 100*l.* to the funds of the society."

23. **BENGAL FAMINE.**—At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Fund for the Relief of the Sufferers by the Famine in Bengal and Behar, held at the Mansion House on Monday afternoon last, the Lord Mayor made the gratifying statement that the famine in India had been practically mastered. The announcement was substantially confirmed by Sir George Campbell, late Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and Sir William Muir, late Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces. The newest telegrams which have come to hand indicate a brighter prospect for the future. It was resolved, however, to send a further sum of 10,000*l.* to the Central Committee in Calcutta, and, in his concluding speech, the Lord Mayor said he anticipated that in the end something like 200,000*l.* would have been contributed by this country towards the relief of the calamity.

24. **A SEVERE THUNDERSTORM** has passed over Scotland and the North of England. The Free Church of Braco or Ardoch, in Perthshire, was struck by lightning and rendered a mass of ruins, the greater part of the steeple falling through the roof. The storm raged with great violence in Morayshire. Mrs. White, wife of a carter, was sitting in her house at Lossiemouth Toll, about seven miles from Elgin, when she was struck dead by a flash of lightning which entered by the chimney. The chimney was shattered, but, singular to state, a child which was in a cradle in the middle of the floor escaped uninjured, although the cradle was broken in pieces. The mother was thrown from a stool into a corner at the fireside, and was found lying face downward by her little daughter, who had only been absent from the room about three minutes. The woman was slightly discoloured in the face, but there were no other marks on the body. From Coupar-Angus, in Perthshire, it is reported that two men, while taking refuge underneath a tree, were struck by a flash and killed on the spot, the tree being destroyed. Hailstones of immense size fell during the storm. The spire of Christ Church, Salford, was struck by the lightning and greatly shortened. Large pieces of solid masonry were detached and hurled to the ground. The lightning played in most fantastic style around the pinnacles of the edifice, some of which were broken and the others disturbed. A ball of fire made its way inside the building and cut two holes through the stairs. Fortunately no person was injured by the falling stones. A brief but very severe thunderstorm passed over Sheffield at noon. At its height a terrific flash of lightning, followed by an instantaneous peal of thunder, struck the offices of the Sheffield Waterworks Company in Division Street, completely destroying a large chimney over the engineers' department. The fragments were partly sent through into a room beneath, and partly carried over a lane some distance. Luckily the room was unoccupied at the time.

26. *THE MANŒUVRES AT ALDERSHOT*, which took place this week, commenced with a sham fight near Sandhurst on the 20th. On the 24th there was a grand sham fight in the vicinity of Frensham, about six miles from Aldershot, in the presence of the Field-Marshal Commanding-in-Chief, who was attended by Lieut-Gen. Sir Charles Ellice, K.C.B., quartermaster-general; Major-Gen. Armstrong, C.B., deputy adjutant-general; Col. Middleton, deputy adjutant-general of artillery, and Col. Marshall. There were also several distinguished visitors, including some officers of the French army.

It was stated by competent military judges on the ground that they never witnessed a more determined mimic battle in this vicinity. It was generally agreed to have been most practical and instructive. On their way home the troops were regaled with bread and cheese. The weather was showery during the greater part of the proceedings, but it did not deter a large number of spectators from being present to witness the operations.

The first series of summer manœuvres closed to-day, with another sham fight and march past, in presence of the Prince of Wales and the Duke of Cambridge.

The Duke subsequently communicated to the army corps his satisfaction with their appearance and discipline, their steadiness on parade, and the way in which they were handled in the field by their divisional leaders.

— *THE FIFTH TRIENNIAL HANDEL FESTIVAL*, held at the Crystal Palace this week, was a complete success, attracting thousands of lovers of music from all parts of England to pay their homage to the memory of the greatest of oratorio writers, and to enjoy those grand compositions with which Handel has enriched the stores of musical art.

The musical arrangements were made by the Sacred Harmonic Society, and the entire performance was conducted by Sir Michael Costa. The soloists were Mdlle. Titiens, Mesdames Otto-Alvsleben, Sinico and Lemmens-Sherrington as sopranos; Mesdames Trebelli-Bettini and Patey as contraltos; Messrs. Sims Reeves, Cummings, Lloyd, and Kerr Gedge as tenors; and Signor Agnesi, Signor Foli, and Mr. Santley as basses. The chorus of 4,000 was made up of the very highest amateur musical talent that could be obtained in the metropolis and the provinces, and the instrumentalists comprised the leading musicians of the day, in addition to a number of skilful amateurs.

The performances commenced with the "Messiah," and concluded with the "Israel in Egypt," a considerable selection from the oratorios and other works of the great master filling up the intervening days.

27. *POLO*.—A match played between the two Houses of Parliament at the Hurlingham Club grounds, Fulham, proved one of the best contested of the season. The weather was fine and the grounds presented a very animated appearance, being thronged by

a numerous and fashionable company, while the long line of carriages, standing in some places three deep, testified to the popularity which Polo has attained with the wealthy classes. The match began at about half-past four, and the sides chosen were as follows:—Lords (Red)—Marquis of Queensberry, Lord Castlereagh, Lord Kilmarnock, Lord Aberdour, Lord H. Vane Tempest. Commons (Blue)—Sir Bache Cunard, Hon. J. Fitzwilliam, Hon. C. Fitzwilliam, Capt. Dansey, Mr. J. F. Brockelhurst. The ball was thrown up, and after a short but spirited contest Lord Castlereagh succeeded in securing the first goal for the Lords. Sides having been changed, a tough struggle ensued for the second game, which was not decided so speedily, the players, after several scrimmages, making a brief pause. On resuming play, success attended the efforts of the Hon. C. Fitzwilliam, who made the second goal for the Commons. The third and fourth goals were also respectively obtained by Capt. E. M. Dansey and the Hon. John Fitzwilliam on the part of the Commons, who thus won the match, making three goals to their opponents' one. The playing was excellent throughout on the part of all concerned, and the ponies behaved as intelligently as usual.

29. THE AGRICULTURAL LOCK-OUT.—About a hundred of the locked-out agricultural labourers from the neighbourhood of Newmarket have commenced a walking tour through the Midland Counties with a view of awakening sympathy with their cause.

Under the direction of Mr. Henry Taylor, the general secretary of the Union, the men left Newmarket, each wearing blue ribbons, and some carrying flags, while others collected money along the route. The procession was headed by a waggon drawn by one horse, on which were placarded the words "Money-box," from which one was given to understand that ample provision had been made for conveying almost any sum that would be forthcoming. Cambridge was the first town through which the procession passed, the men singing what are termed Union songs, and they thence proceeded to Bedford, Olney, and Northampton, accomplishing a good part of the journey by train.

— WALKING A THOUSAND MILES FOR 50*l*.—Miss Richards, who is called the champion walker, has just concluded at Stapleton, near Bristol, the extraordinary feat of walking one thousand miles in one thousand consecutive hours. She is a young girl, and finished quite fresh. An endeavour was made, when she began her task on May 18, to obtain magisterial interference, but this was unsuccessful, on the ground that she was a free agent, although she undertook the task in order that her father might win a wager of 50*l*.

30. THE INTER-UNIVERSITY CRICKET MATCH.—The great annual cricket match between the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge was played at Lords on Monday and Tuesday, and resulted in a victory for the dark blue by an innings and ninety-two runs, Cambridge scoring in the first innings 109, and in the second only 64, whilst Oxford scored 265 in one innings only. As each Uni-

versity has now scored nineteen games, more than the usual interest will attach to next year's contest. Altogether there have been forty inter-University matches, but two of them were not finished.

— FIVE MEN SUFFOCATED.—An accident has occurred at the East London Railway works, by which five men lost their lives. It had been found necessary by the contractors for the works to underpin the main building of the St. George's East Workhouse, owing to the peculiar nature of the soil through which the railway tunnel has to pass, and its proximity to the building in question. For the purpose of the underpinning operations several shafts had been sunk near the wall of the workhouse. On this occasion, upon returning from dinner, the men were proceeding down one of the shafts at the north-east corner of the workhouse, when it was discovered that two men had fallen from the ladder to the bottom of the shaft. Others followed to rescue them, apparently not knowing or suspecting the cause of the accident, and, in spite of the shouts of one of the gangers near, six men in all descended the shaft to rescue their fellow-workmen. Besides the first two, three others fell to the bottom, and the sixth man was laid hold of just in time to prevent his death. The cause of the accident was an unexpected accumulation of foul air whilst the men were away at dinner. The sixth man, named Smith, was unconscious when brought to the surface, but was revived by the aid of some stimulants supplied by Mr. Tyler, the master of the workhouse. Measures were taken to disperse the foul air, and the bodies were then recovered, and conveyed to the workhouse mortuary. The sad news soon became known, and the scene of the accident was visited during the afternoon by large numbers of people, amongst whom were the wives and relatives of the deceased men, whose presence caused considerable excitement and sympathy.

JULY.

2. NORTHUMBERLAND HOUSE.—The first step has been taken towards the demolition of this well known mansion, which has been purchased of the Duke of Northumberland by the Metropolitan Board of Works for the sum of 500,000*l.* for the purpose of making a new thoroughfare from Charing Cross to the Victoria Thames Embankment. The famous lion over the entrance gate placed there 125 years ago by Algernon, Duke of Somerset, and the Countess of Northumberland, was taken down this afternoon, in the presence of a large number of spectators, and will be set up again at the Duke's residence at Sion House.

3. OPENING OF LEICESTER SQUARE.—The ceremony of opening the gardens of Leicester Square, which have been restored to order

and beautifully laid out by Mr. Albert Grant, M.P., and by him presented to the Metropolitan Board of Works for the public enjoyment, took place to-day. A large number of spectators were present, and the locality had been decorated with flags and Venetian masts, from which depended festoons of flowers. Every house had contributed to the display, several to a remarkable extent.

The gates were opened at half-past one, and soon after that time the invited guests began to arrive in large numbers. Soon after three Mr. Grant, M.P., arrived on the ground, and was received with loud cheers by the crowds which blocked the streets. Inside the enclosure his welcome was also a warm one. He proceeded to the pavilion at the north end of the square, where had assembled the members of the Metropolitan Board of Works. The Leicester Square Defence Committee was also present.

After an address from Mr. Grant, responded to by warm acknowledgments from Mr. Richardson on behalf of the Board of Works, and an address from the Defence Committee, Mr. Richardson proceeded to uncover the central statue of Shakspeare, to start the fountains, and to unveil the four busts at the corners. Returning to the pavilion, he declared the ground (in the words of the statute empowering the Board of Works to undertake the charge of such squares) to be set apart for ever as an open space for recreation and for general and public use.

The enclosure had been utterly transformed. In the place of the old mutilated statue of George I. stands a magnificent fountain of Sicilian marble, surmounted by a statue of Shakspeare, executed by Signor Fontana, of Chelsea. The garden is laid out with broad gravel walks running from the gates at the four sides to the centre, and serving to divide plots of grass, relieved by small beds of flowers, and edged by a neat bordering of ornamental iron-work; and a light iron fencing, painted and gilt, surrounds the whole. At the four corners are busts of Hogarth, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Sir Isaac Newton, and John Hunter, all of them having been connected with the locality.

6. FALL OF A BUILDING.—A fatal accident happened at Islington to-day. It appears that for some months past a building has been in course of construction on the site of new Bunhill Fields burial-ground, near Islington Green. The building was nearly completed, and was to be used as workshops. Temporary wooden props were used to support the roof, but it was now thought safe to remove them. When the last support was removed the roof gave way and fell in with a loud crash, and five men were buried in the ruins. They were extricated as soon as possible; but the foreman of the works was so badly injured that he died soon afterwards. The other men were all more or less injured, and were taken to St. Bartholomew's Hospital.

8. THE QUEEN'S REVIEW AT CHOBHAM.—The troops who have been assembled at Aldershot for a series of manœuvres under the command of General Sir James Hope Grant, G.C.B., were reviewed

to-day by her Majesty at Chobham Common. They formed two divisions, one commanded by Prince Edward of Saxe-Weimar, the other by Major-General Henry Smyth, C.B., and both together, including the Guards, mustered about 11,000 men, with forty-eight guns. The cavalry brigades, after the field manoeuvres of the day, marched past the Queen's carriage.

9. FATAL FALL OF THE "FLYING MAN."—A very shocking disaster took place at Chelsea this evening. A Belgian named Vincent de Groof, while attempting to descend by a newly-invented parachute from Mr. Joseph Simmons's balloon, soon after its ascent from Cremorne Gardens, fell suddenly to the ground from a height of 80 feet, and was instantly killed. M. de Groof had been employed several years in constructing for himself an apparatus with which he believed it possible to imitate the flight of a bird. The general plan of this apparatus was an imitation of a bat's wings, the framework being made of cane, and the intervening membrane of stout waterproof silk. The wings were altogether 37 ft. long, with an average breadth of 4 ft. The tail was 18 ft. by 3 ft. These wings were inserted into two hinged frames, attached to a wooden stand, upon which the aeronaut took his place. He had three levers, which he worked by hand, to give his machine propulsion or guidance, as might be required. His theory was that, having started from a given height, he could manage his descent so as to reach the earth by a sort of inclined swooping motion, without risk of concussion. About a year ago M. de Groof made an attempt to descend from a great height on the Grande Place at Brussels. The effort was a failure, but the man was not hurt. He came this summer to London, and on June 29 went up by the balloon from Cremorne with Mr. Simmons, having his machine attached to it. On that occasion he descended safely from a height of 300 ft. or 400 ft., in Epping Forest. A second attempt proved abortive, the machine not working properly, so that Mr. Simmons refused to take him up. On the fatal evening of his last attempt it was intended to let the parachute descend in the Thames. M. de Groof was able to detach himself from the balloon when he pleased. He had arranged with Mr. Simmons to let the balloon be within a certain distance of the ground for this purpose, and it was accordingly lowered from 4,000 ft. to 300 ft. above the ground. The two men shouted to each other in German, as De Groof understood no English; but Mr. Simmons says that De Groof only called out the height at which he was. A witness below, the porter of the Chelsea Infirmary, who watched the balloon and parachute, heard, or fancied that he heard, a voice in the air twice exclaiming, in English, "Drop into the churchyard! Look out!" They were drifting near St. Luke's Church, not much above the height of the church tower. De Groof seems to have detached his machine from the balloon immediately afterwards, and Mr. Simmons thinks he overbalanced himself and fell forwards, clinging to his ropes. To the horror of the spectators,

the apparatus, instead of inflating with the pressure of the air, collapsed, and, turning round and round in its descent, fell with great violence in Robert Street, a few yards from the kerbstone. The unfortunate man was still breathing, though insensible; but the despatch with which he was extricated from the wreck and carried into the Infirmary proved in vain. He never recovered consciousness, and on his arrival at the hospital the surgeons pronounced him dead. Madame de Groof, who witnessed her husband's fall, fainted at the sight. The balloon rose and went on, crossing London in a north-easterly direction. Mr. Simmons swooned in the car, and did not recover his senses till he was over Victoria Park. He travelled into Essex, and came down with his balloon on the railway, just in front of a train, which the engine-driver stopped in time to prevent another accident. The verdict of the jury on the inquest amounted practically to one of death by misadventure, appended to which was an expression of opinion that exhibitions of a dangerous character claimed the attention of the Legislature.

10. GALLANTRY OF A NAVAL OFFICER.—The *London Gazette* of this day contains an announcement that "the Queen has been graciously pleased to confer the Albert medal of the second class upon Mr. David Webster, late second mate of the brig 'Arracan,' of Greenock, residing at Broughty Ferry, Dundee." Most people are aware that the distinction in question is granted as a reward for extraordinary gallantry shown in the preservation of human life; but we believe the sober pages of the official journal have never set forth a more romantic history than that which appears to explain and justify Her Majesty's grace to the late second mate of the "Arracan:"—

The "Arracan" was a small trading barque plying between Shields and Bombay. Early in the present year she was on her outward voyage with a cargo of coals, and when far away from any land, on February 17 last, was discovered to be on fire. Spontaneous combustion, it is stated, had begun, and the crew resolved to take to the boats, the master manning the long-boat with some of the men, the first mate taking charge of the gig with most of the remainder, and Webster, the second mate, being placed in the pinnace with three men and a boy. As the boats could not keep together, they divided the provisions and separated on the 20th. On March 9 Mr. Webster's crew had consumed all their provisions and water. Shortly afterwards the crew cast lots which of them should be first killed to be eaten, and the lot fell upon the ship's boy Horner, but Webster, who had been asleep, was awakened in time to save the boy's life. After dark an attempt was made to kill Webster himself, but the boy Horner awoke him in time to save himself. On the following day, Webster, having fallen asleep, was awoken by the struggles of the crew for the possession of his gun, with which to shoot him. Two hours later the crew attempted to take Horner's life again, but were prevented

by the determined conduct of Webster, who threatened to shoot or throw overboard the first man who laid hands on the boy. The next day one of the crew attempted to sink the boat, but Webster mastered him and prevented further mischief. Two days later the same member of the crew again tried to sink the boat, and expressed his determination to take the boy's life. For this he would have been shot by Webster had not the cap on the gun missed fire. Soon after putting a fresh cap on his gun, a bird flew over the boat, which Webster shot; it was at once seized and devoured by the crew, even to the bones and feathers. During the next five days the crew were quieter, subsisting on barnacles which attached themselves to the bottom of the boat, and on sea blubber, for which they dived. The following day some of the men became delirious. One of them lay down exhausted, when another struck him several blows on the head with an iron belaying-pin, cutting him badly. The blood which flowed was caught in a tin and drunk by the man himself and the two other men. Afterwards they fought and bit one another, and only left off when completely exhausted, to recommence as soon as they were able, the boy Horner during the time keeping watch with Webster. On the thirty-first day in the boat they were picked up 600 miles from land by the ship "City of Manchester," Hardie, master, by whom they were very kindly treated and brought to Calcutta. Webster, by his conduct, was the means of saving the lives of all in the boat.

11. UNVEILING OF THE DERBY STATUE.—The bronze statue of the late Earl of Derby by Mr. Matthew Noble, erected within the garden enclosure of Parliament Square, opposite New Palace Yard, and adjacent to St. Margaret's Churchyard, Westminster, was publicly unveiled to-day by Mr. Disraeli. The statue is of heroic size, 10 ft. high. Lord Derby is represented in the graceful flowing robes of Chancellor of the Oxford University. The likeness has been admirably caught by the sculptor. The square pedestal, which is of Peterhead granite, highly polished, is enriched by four sculptures in relief, on bronze tablets. These represent the late Peer advocating the abolition of slavery in the House of Commons in 1833, his installation as Chancellor of Oxford University twenty years later, his attendance as Chairman of the Manchester Relief Committee in 1865, and his presence as Premier at a Cabinet Council in the year 1867. Oak-leaves and acorns wreathed run round the pedestal, which, like the statue, is 10 ft. high.

The proceedings were begun by Lord Hampton (formerly Sir John Pakington), in the name of the committee of subscribers, making a brief address to the company, and presenting the statue to the nation. He invited Mr. Disraeli to perform the ceremony of unveiling it. Mr. Disraeli did this amidst general applause, and, in the speech which followed, gave an eloquent description of the statesman to whose memory the statue was raised. A large

assembly of ladies and gentlemen, the latter including several distinguished statesmen, ministers, and members of both Houses of Parliament, was present.

— **SEVERE THUNDERSTORM.**—On the afternoon of to-day a heavy thunderstorm, which had raged somewhat earlier in the day over Surrey, broke over London, especially in the north-eastern districts. At Edmonton and Tottenham the basements of many houses were filled with water and the furniture floated about. In a part of the roadway the water was up to the breasts of the horses, and for a time the Edmonton omnibuses had to cease running. In some parts of Hackney and Homerton the same thing occurred. The rain fell so rapidly that it was impossible to see across the road. The wind, too, played great havoc with a large number of unfinished houses, and many trees were rooted up. In the Victoria Park Road and Prince of Wales's Road, Victoria Park, the lower parts of the houses were completely submerged.

Many accidents, some fatal, occurred in consequence of the lightning. Five men who were crossing Victoria Park were struck. One was killed, a second received an injury to the right arm, and the others were rendered insensible for some time. At Edmonton a woman was killed while chopping wood in an outhouse. At Bow a man, who had been haymaking, was struck dead with his fork on his shoulder. In Beresford Fields a lad named Samuel Clarke, aged seventeen, and James and Joseph Anderson, father and son, were haymaking when the storm came on. They covered themselves with the hay to keep off the rain, and shortly afterwards, the father found that his son and the other lad were dead. The next moment he felt a shock and became insensible.

The parish church of Ayot St. Peter, in Hertfordshire, was struck by the lightning about a quarter past six, and in the course of an hour was completely destroyed, nothing of importance being preserved but the parish registers and papers. The church of St. Luke, Homerton, the General Post Office, St. Martin's le Grand, and the Military Prison at the Royal Artillery Barracks at Woolwich, were all likewise struck, and more or less injured.

— **THE ETON AND HARROW CRICKET MATCH**, played at Lord's as usual in the presence of a large and fashionable concourse of spectators, ended in the victory of Eton by five wickets.

Two great county matches were played during the week, in which Yorkshire beat Sussex, and Nottinghamshire Middlesex.

15. **GREAT FIRE AT CHATHAM.**—The large block of buildings used for the purposes of the mess by the Royal Engineer officers at Chatham was almost entirely destroyed by fire to-day.

A grand ball was to have been given in the evening, some 400 or 500 invitations having been sent, and additional gas-fittings were being put up. The fire broke out on the roof of one of the large rooms leading to the dining-room, and spread very rapidly. The fire bugle was sounded in the barracks, several hundred men came up, and the valuable collection of plate, pictures, furniture,

&c., was all saved. Before the firemen had got into good play, however, the fire had complete possession of the roofs of nearly all the buildings, which afterwards fell in with a tremendous crash. The large and handsomely-fitted dining-room, the conservatory, the entrance-hall, the ante-rooms, the billiard-rooms, &c., were completely gutted. When the roof fell in a corporal of the Royal Engineers was severely injured about the head by some slates falling upon him, and he had to be taken to Fort Pitt Hospital. There is every reason to believe that in the absence of the energetic measures taken the fire would have extended to the commandant's house, which adjoins the officers' mess, and so on to other quarters.

16. SHAM FIGHT AT ALDERSHOT.—The Prince of Wales and the Crown Prince of Germany, attended by a distinguished staff of general officers, witnessed an interesting sham fight on the Fox Hill between the two divisions of the Army Corps now going through the summer manœuvres.

The force on the ground was 18,770 men; the division entrusted with the defence being under the command of Major-General Smyth, C.B., and the enemy under that of Major-General Prince Edward of Saxe-Weimar, C.B.

The various movements were successfully carried out, and the appearance of the men was such as to reflect credit upon the troops assembled in the presence of so practical a critic as the Crown Prince of Germany, who, it may be observed, inspected the force, and paid particular attention to the equipments of the cavalry. During these movements the Prince of Wales was thrown from his horse, but fortunately received no injury. A trooper galloping past the Prince to take his position cannoned with great impetuosity against his horse, hurling it with its rider to the ground. But his Royal Highness was no sooner down than he was up again, providentially none the worse for the fall, save by the loss of a spur; and before more than the few in his immediate neighbourhood knew anything of the accident, his Royal Highness had remounted and was cantering by the Crown Prince's side as if nothing had happened. The march past followed as soon as the troops could be brought together on the level plateau.

18. THE ANNUAL WIMBLEDON RIFLE MEETING, which commenced on the 6th of this month, was to-day brought to a conclusion by the distribution of prizes by Princess Christian, and the review of troops and volunteers. One of the most generally interesting days was Thursday, the 9th, when the Lords and Commons had their annual match. The Commons won easily, the numbers being—Commons, 337; Lords, 261. This makes seven victories out of twelve for the Commons.

On the following day the St. George's challenge vase was gained by Private M'Vittie, 7th Dumfries, with 35 points, the highest possible score—every shot being sent through the little bull's-eye 500 yards away. The Prince of Wales's badge and 100*l.* were won by Sergeant Tildesley, 1st Beds.

Some interesting competitions were decided on the subsequent days. The China cup, a prize which was contended for by teams of ten efficient volunteers from each county, fell to the representatives of Middlesex with the excellent score of 404 points, being an average of centres. The Irish International Trophy, which was contested by teams who strove to maintain the reputation of each of the three kingdoms, was won by Scotland; England being second, and Ireland third. The competition for the Albert prize resulted in a tie for the first place between Captain Starkie, Queen's Westminster; Lieutenant-Colonel Hosier, Lancashire; Sergeant Ferguson, Inverness; and Private McVittie, Dumfries, each of whom scored 91 points out of a possible 105.

In the final shooting for the Queen's prize, on Tuesday, it was found that Sergeant Rae, of the 31st Lanark, and Private Atkinson, of the 1st Durham, had tied with a score of 64. Before firing off, they agreed to divide the money, and shoot for the medal and badge. Rae missed three times and finished with a total of 5. Atkinson missed only twice, and his hits were two bull's-eyes and an outer, which gave him 14. He was carried in triumph round the camp. Mr. Atkinson is a working joiner and builder, thirty-three years of age, in business at Stockton-on-Tees. The Elcho International Challenge Shield was won, for the fourth time, by the team from Scotland, making 1,437 points, while the English team made 1,405, and the Irish 1,378. England has won the shield eight times, and Ireland once. The Ashburton Shield, competed for by nine public schools, was won by Marlborough, for the first time, scoring 420, with seven shots by each of the eleven marksmen at the 200-yards and 500-yards ranges. In former years this challenge shield has been won seven times by Harrow, thrice by Winchester, twice by Eton, and once by Rugby. The Spencer Cup was won by Mr. Sladen, of Cheltenham College. The Rajah of Kolapore's cup, with 40L., was won by the riflemen of Great Britain competing against those of India and Canada.

At the distribution of prizes, the more prominent winners—Atkinson, the Queen's prizeman, and the Marlborough boys—were very warmly received. Towards the close of this prize-giving, the Duke of Cambridge, lately recovered from illness, rode on to the ground. The regular troops—namely, the 2nd Life Guards, the Royal Horse Guards (Blue), two squadrons of the Scots Greys, the 19th Hussars, and two batteries of field artillery—were put through some manœuvres to allow time for the forming up of the volunteers. Having been inspected on parade, at the Wimbledon end of the camp, the regiments were formed into two brigades, one consisting of the Guards, the other of the Greys and Hussars; the batteries acted as divisional artillery. Skirmishers having been sent forward and recalled, the Light Brigade advanced at a gallop past the Grand Stand, and were supposed to receive a check near the boundary fence near the camp. Both batteries of artillery were brought into action on each flank of the heavy brigade, and

the Guards then advanced at the charge, halting in line when the trumpet sounded. The two brigades were finally formed in one division in the middle of the common, facing the spectators, and charged in line; after which the march past took place. General Sir Garnet Wolseley was present, as Inspector-General of the Auxiliary Forces.

— **SHAFTESBURY PARK**, a township situated in Battersea, near Clapham Junction Station, and which in a few months will contain 1,200 houses, capable of accommodating about 8,000 persons, was formally opened the same day.

It is the work of the Artisans, Labourers, and General Dwellings Company, which also has estates in Liverpool, Manchester, and Birmingham. Besides the houses, which may be rented or bought, preference being given to the latter class of tenants, the special features of the township are an ornamental garden, schools, lecture-hall, co-operative stores, general stores, and not one public-house or pawn-shop. The rent of the houses varies from 5s. 9d. a week for five rooms to 26l. a year for eight rooms; if bought, the price is from 150l. to 310l. Lord Shaftesbury, Mr. Disraeli, Earl Granville, and other gentlemen made speeches. The Premier expressed his warm sympathy with Lord Shaftesbury's endeavours to improve the condition of the working classes.

— **FATAL BOAT ACCIDENTS.**—A terrible accident has occurred off Margate. A party of six ladies and gentlemen, with three coastguardsmen, started from Epple Bay for a sail in the coast-guard galley. They proceeded a distance of about two miles, and then commenced the return journey, but had not proceeded far before they were capsized. They were struck by a sea and the boat dipped, going, however, so low that she filled, and her occupants were thrown out. Six of the party were drowned, the remaining three being rescued by the crew of the Margate steamer, the "Prince of Wales." A similar disaster took place on the sea between Dawlish and Teignmouth, on the South Devon coast, where eleven persons belonging to a workmen's excursion party from Bristol went out in a small boat, which was overloaded, capsized, and four women and one man were drowned. At an inquest a verdict of manslaughter against the boatman was returned.

19. A **FATAL COLLIERY ACCIDENT** took place to-day in the Wigan Six Feet mine, where some 150 men had been employed during the day. In consequence of the frequent catastrophes in this seam gunpowder is only used in the night-time, and then under the direction of thoroughly competent firemen and shot-lighters. There were therefore twelve men only in the mine when the terrible blast at the surface told of a fearful explosion. Fortunately the shaft and cages were not much damaged, and in a couple of hours it was possible for an exploring party to descend, when it was soon plain that no person could then be found alive. In an upper seam, known as the "Wigan Four Feet," were thirteen men. Ten of these escaped through a channel pit, but the other three men were

so near the entrance to the shaft that they were killed, and one was mangled beyond the possibility of identification. The greatest caution was observed, and Mr. Gilroy, the manager, had the assistance of the managers of the principal collieries adjacent, and of the Government inspector, Mr. Thomas Bell. Fifteen lives, however, were lost.

21. A TERRIBLE EXPLOSION OF FIREWORKS has occurred at Northampton, in the house of a plasterer who was engaged in manufacturing fireworks for a show that was to take place the following day. Some time after the family had retired to bed an explosion was heard, and immediately the house was a mass of flame. Mr. Smith, the plasterer, succeeded in busting open the front door and escaped, very much burnt; the mother and two of the children jumped from the window and were caught below, but died soon afterwards; and two of the daughters were found dead in the ruins.

— COMPLIMENT TO LITERATURE AND ART.—The Lord Mayor gave a banquet at the Mansion House, to-night, to about 300 ladies and gentlemen, English and foreign, most of whom were in some way identified with literature or art. Singers, painters, novelists, and newspaper editors were invited, as well as several well-known "special correspondents." On the immediate right of the Lord Mayor sat the Marquis and Marchioness de Caux (Madame Adelina Patti), Lord Lyttelton, Alderman Sir Sydney Waterlow, M.P., Sir George Elvey, and other principal guests; and on his left, the Lady Mayoress, Lord Houghton, Sir Francis Grant (President of the Royal Academy), Lord Ravensworth and Lady Eleanor Liddell, and Sir Arthur Helps. In proposing the toast of "English and Foreign Literature and Art," the Lord Mayor coupled with it the names of Lord Houghton, Sir Francis Grant, President of the Royal Academy; and M. Halanzier, Director of the Opera at Paris. All these gentlemen severally responded. The Marquis de Caux responded for his wife, whose name had been mentioned in connection with the toast of "Music." Sir Julius Benedict also replied to this toast. "English and Foreign Journalism" was replied to by Mr. G. A. Sala; M. Louis Hayman, of the *Echo du Parlement*, of Brussels; and Mr. George Sauer, of the *New York Herald*. Mr. Alfred Wigan acknowledged the toast of "Prosperity to the Drama." Sir Arthur Helps proposed the health of the Lord Mayor, and Lord Ravensworth that of the Lady Mayoress.

22. BANQUET TO HER MAJESTY'S MINISTERS.—The banquet at which, in pursuance of a good old custom, the Lord Mayor annually entertains Her Majesty's Ministers, was held to-day with all the pomp and circumstance which mark the hospitalities of the Chief Magistrate of the City. Mr. Disraeli and most of the chief members of the Government were present, and the company also included a large number of Members of Parliament.

— COGGIA'S COMET.—The sky has been illuminated for the

last ten days by a brilliant comet, which was first discovered through a telescope at Marseilles by M. Coggia, and has since rapidly approached the earth, till early in this month it became visible to the naked eye, and has latterly been a very brilliant object soon after twilight. It attains its greatest nearness to the earth to-day, but sets so early that it has ceased to be visible, except through a telescope.

23. **FANCY BALL AT MARLBOROUGH HOUSE.**—The Prince and Princess of Wales gave a fancy dress ball at Marlborough House this evening, which was magnificent beyond the usual magnificence of such festivals, and planned and carried out down to the smallest detail in the most thorough and artistic manner. About 500 ladies and gentlemen were present. The dancing was in three rooms on the garden front of the ground floor, the ball-room for the chief quadrilles, and the library and dining-room at either side. The Hungarian band played in the conservatory off the saloon, and Coote and Tinney's in the dining-room. Fancy dress was worn by every guest, with, we believe, the sole exception of the Duke of Cambridge, who came in the uniform of a field-marshal. The first dance was the Venetian quadrille, led by the Princess of Wales, in a ruby-coloured Venetian dress, and the Marquis of Hartington; at the same time the Prince of Wales, in a splendid Vandyke costume, with fair Cavalier curls flowing down his shoulders, led the Vandyke quadrille with the Duchess of Sutherland. These were followed by the Card quadrille, led by Princess Christian and the Duke of Athole, as Queen of Clubs and King of Diamonds; the Fairy quadrille, headed by Miss Graham and the Duke of Connaught, as Beauty and the Beast; the Puritan and the Cavalier quadrilles. The arrangement of the apartments and tents was on the most splendid scale.

25. **MILITARY AERONAUTICS.**—An experimental balloon ascent has been made from the Royal Arsenal, Woolwich. The object of the ascent was to test an apparatus invented by Mr. C. A. Bowdler, designed with a view of steering a balloon in the air. Major Beaumont accompanied Mr. Bowdler and Mr. Coxwell, together with Sergeant T. Murray, who assisted in working the steering machinery. The balloon employed was "The City of York." Its height, independent of the car, is 80 feet, and it contained when inflated 60,000 cubic feet of gas. The steering machinery was fixed to the car in a few minutes. After some ineffectual attempts, the balloon ascended about a thousand feet, and the steering apparatus was tried, but failed to have the slightest apparent effect on the course of the balloon. It developed, however, one unexpected quality—it enabled the aeronauts to make the balloon revolve either to the right or to the left, according to the way in which the fan was worked. In the opinion of the Government officer it quite failed to fulfil its original object. After making a low dip over the Essex marshes by letting out gas, and repeating the trial without success, the ballast was discharged,

and the balloon ascended to an altitude of two miles. The sky being hazy, this carried them through a thick cloud, which quite hid the earth from sight, and gave the voyagers a splendid view of the sun's effect upon the upper surface of the clouds. After enjoying this for a while they opened the valve, and dropped down, alighting safely, at seven o'clock, on the farm of Mr. Morris, at Cray's Hill, nine miles from Romford and four miles from Pitsea Station, on the Tilbury and Southend line. Experiments are now being made by the Balloon Committee at Woolwich to ascertain the best means of inflating a balloon on a field of battle. The special object of these inquiries is to introduce an aeronautical system of reconnoitring, or of taking observations during action.

— MILITARY ART.—The men of the Royal Engineers at Chatham have been paraded on the Great Lines, and performed a variety of evolutions in the presence of Miss Thompson, the painter of the "Roll-Call," who is about to paint another military piece, and has obtained the sanction of the Field-Marshal Commanding-in-Chief to inspect the Royal Engineers from time to time. On this, the second visit that the artist has made to Chatham for this purpose, she was accompanied by Colonel J. F. M. Browne, C.B., Deputy Adjutant-General of the Royal Engineers, and other officers of the War Office. The troops were on the Lines for some time, and went through a variety of movements—skirmishing, forming square to resist cavalry, firing, &c. Miss Thompson took a number of sketches of the troops in different positions. She afterwards selected a number of men who are to attend her studio as models for various characters and positions of troops in her projected picture.

27. FATAL COLLISION IN THE CHANNEL.—The steamer "Milbanke," homeward bound from Cartagena, was run down in the night off Dungeness, by the "Hankow," outward bound to China. Fourteen lives were lost, including the captain and mate, and their wives.

The "Milbanke" was five miles off Dungeness at 1.30 A.M., the electric light being plainly visible from the deck and the weather fine and clear, and there being every promise of a speedy termination of the voyage, which commenced on July 19. The "Hankow," in steaming down the Channel, caught the "Milbanke" stem on, and, striking her amidships, penetrated half-way through her hull. The alarm was given to the watch below, but before they could get on deck the "Milbanke" sank, and only those of the crew who were in the cabins on deck appear to have been saved. Twelve of them contrived to climb on board the "Hankow" before she was able to back out, and four more were subsequently picked up by one of her boats, which was lowered as quickly as possible after the accident. The crew numbered twenty-eight hands, exclusive of Mrs. Smith, the wife of the captain, and Mrs. Neill, the wife of the mate. They, although aroused from bed immediately after the collision, were drowned, with their

husbands, so that, with twelve of the crew, fourteen lives in all were lost.

28. **FATAL THUNDERSTORM.**—Shortly after midnight a thunderstorm of alarming severity passed over St. Albans and the neighbourhood. Mr. W. Raymond, living at Manor Hall, Elstree, was awoken by a loud crash of thunder. Hearing screams, he rushed from his room and found the west gable of the house had been struck by lightning. On proceeding further he found the nursery in flames, and opening a door leading to his children's room he found that a chimney-stack had fallen through the roof on to a bed occupied by the two nursemaids. He dragged them out, but both were dead. Messengers were sent for the engines; but before their arrival Mr. Ransome, of Shenley Lodge, brought over one of Dennis's portable pneumatic fire extinguishers, and put out the flames. In the north of England and in Scotland the storm was very destructive.

— **GREAT FIRE AT LIVERPOOL.**—The landing-stage on the Mersey has just been almost totally destroyed by fire. The fire broke out at three this afternoon, and was burning till early next morning. The whole length of the stage, which had been recently completed by the addition of a new portion adjoining the old George's and the more recent Prince's stage, was nearly a quarter of a mile, and the cost of the structure was a quarter of a million sterling. It is conjectured that the origin of the fire was a gas explosion underneath the newly-added portion, which was being fitted with gaspipes. The fire spread quickly underneath the deck of the stage, catching the timber-work over the pontoon. A few weeks since the George's stage was moved and united with the Prince's stage, and a structure was thus formed that was unrivalled in the world. It was upwards of 2,000 ft. in length, and joined by seven bridges, one of which, the pontoon bridge, is 590 ft. in length and 38 ft. in breadth. The principle adopted in the construction of the Prince's and George's stages was employed in that of the additions made to it, the woodwork of which was impregnated with creosote for the purpose of rendering it less liable to the action of the water, and tar was plentifully used between the planks and elsewhere, and this, of course, made the upper part of the structure exceedingly inflammable.

29. **THE SUMMER MANŒUVRES.**—The last engagement of the summer drills was fought on Wednesday, on Kettlebury Hill and Hankly Common. It proved to be one of the most interesting that has taken place. Major-General Smyth's command mustered altogether 6,969 men, 1,118 horses, and 24 guns; whilst Prince Edward, who occupied a very formidable line of defence, had under his personal supervision 6,139 men, 1,330 horses, and 24 guns. A sharp look-out was kept in the neighbourhood of Thursley, from which point it was expected the enemy would make their principal attack. So confident was Prince Edward that the battle would be fought along the chain of heights running through Hankly to Til-

ford that he massed his two brigades at this point for the purpose of meeting the enemy. Somewhat to his astonishment, Colonel Thesiger, at the head of Smyth's second brigade, made a feint upon the Prince's right, which, owing to the position they occupied, proved unsuccessful. Thesiger withdrew his men under cover of the woods in front. Herbert, throwing his brigade forward from Thursley, renewed the action by attempting to outflank on the left. He felt his left flank in vain, but at the same time it was evident that he had a purpose in view in doing so. He was gradually working round that flank, when, all of a sudden, amid the deafening fire of the artillery and the rattling volleys of Bingham's brigade, together with two battalions of the Guards, which had been brought up from the right on purpose to protect the left, the sound of the Snider was heard among the rugged knolls of the Devil's Jump. From that moment the battle was lost. Colonel Thesiger threw his whole brigade against the two weakened battalions which Prince Edward had left upon the Jump, driving them from their position, and marched quietly in rear of the Prince's whole army until he effected a junction with General Herbert, when, of course, he changed his front, which then raked the whole right of the Prince's lines. The result is that Major-General Prince Edward of Saxe-Weimar, who it was intended should have won a great victory, was most ignominiously defeated.

— ONE YEAR'S RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.—Captain Tyler, in his general report on railway accidents in 1873, states that altogether 247 casualties formed the subject of inquiry during the twelve months. The total number of passenger journeys having been 455,272,000, the proportion of passengers killed was, in round numbers, 1 to 2,845,450, and of passengers injured 1 to 260,155; and the proportions of passengers killed and injured from causes beyond their own control were respectively 1 in 11,381,800 and 1 in 299,127. This was a decrease on the average of the number killed and an increase of the number injured from causes beyond their own control in the previous three years, in which the proportions were 1 to 11,123,931 killed, and 1 to 357,000 injured. Of the officers and servants of railway companies there were in proportion to the total number employed—say 250,000—killed from all causes 1 out of 323, and injured 1 out of 213; but accidents to servants do not appear in many cases even now to have been reported by certain of the railway companies; and their numbers would, if the whole truth could be ascertained, be considerably increased.

31. THE GOODWOOD MEETING, which occupied the last week of this month, was singularly barren of interest. The withdrawals of King Lud, Boiard, and Flageolet rendered the Cup far less important than usual, and, as Organist fell lame in the course of the race, the finish was left to Doncaster and Kaiser. The former was conceding 7 lb.; but though he ran a little shiftily at the finish, he won pretty cleverly by a neck, affording one more proof that

Kaiser is an overrated horse, and does not really care for a strongly run race over a long course. M. Lefevre's Mirliflor, improving greatly on his Ascot form, secured the Prince of Wales's Stakes, which was worth 2,200*l.*, and, thanks to a magnificent piece of riding by Foidham, Trombone (9 st. 6 lb.) just beat Modena (8 st. 7 lb.) and a large field for the Chichester Stakes.

— THE LOSS OF THE "BRITISH ADMIRAL."—News has been received at Plymouth of the loss of the "British Admiral," a new iron steamer, bound from Liverpool to Australia. She was on her first voyage, and had on board eighty passengers and crew. Some time after leaving Liverpool she lost her masts in the Bay of Biscay, and had to return to port for new ones. On her second attempt she was struck by a heavy sea, which damaged her chronometer and compasses. She failed to make a land-fall off Cape Otway Light on May 23, and struck on the fatal reefs of King's Island, Bass's Strait. An effort was made to wear ship, but she only fell broadside on the rocks. At about three A.M. forty-nine passengers, awakened from sleep, rushed on deck to find the ship crashing against the granite rocks, and every sea making a clean breach over her. One small boat was all that could be launched, and in this the second mate, four seamen, and three passengers put off. All the other boats were smashed by falling spars, and the rest of the passengers, who had congregated by the mizen, went down with the ship into deep water within a few minutes. The boat capsized in the breakers, and only three of the party managed to regain her. Mr. Nicholson, son of an ex-Premier of Victoria, who had been to England for his health, was among those lost. He might have been saved, but he lost his life in a vain attempt to save two little children from the floating wreckage. The third mate, startled from a sick bed, went down with the ship, and on coming to the surface seized a plank, on which he reached the shore, and was the only officer saved. The other survivors were Mr. O'Grady, saloon passenger; D. Keys, J. Jones, and J. Harold, steerage passengers; Maggard, Baker, and Davidson, seamen. At daylight they managed to make a tent out of some wreckage, and were fortunate enough to find some provisions and spirits washed ashore. They remained on the island, after being found, by another seaman named Coningham, who had escaped on a floating spar, until the "Kangaroo" ketch took them off. During the interval they found and buried all the bodies that had been washed ashore. They were landed at Melbourne on June 1.

— A MELANCHOLY CASE OF DROWNING took place to-day. Mr. Charles Edward Emery, a young artist on the *Illustrated London News*, was travelling on a "Citizen" steamboat on the Thames, and when just opposite Pimlico Pier observed a boy fall off the Embankment into the water. He being a good swimmer almost immediately buttoned his coat and jumped into the water to endeavour to save the boy; but, a swift tide, running at the time, he

drifted away, and within a few minutes afterwards was observed to sink. A servant on board the steamer, named Levitt, jumped on to the shore, and by catching hold of the pier the boy managed to lay hold of his legs, and was successfully rescued; but the unfortunate gentleman was seen no more till half-past eight in the evening, when his body was dragged ashore within twenty yards of the spot where he jumped in.

AUGUST.

3. **BASE-BALL.**—The two teams of American base-ball players—the Boston and Athletic—who have come to England to give exhibitions of the national game of their country, made their first appearance in London to-day at Lord's Ground. There was a fair "ring" at the commencement, and during the afternoon some 4,000 spectators were present, the day being beautifully fine. The game is so entirely unknown in this country that it will doubtless be some time before the various points are fairly understood and appreciated. It is played by nine players on each side, is a game particularly rapid in its changes, and is replete with excitement from first to last, all the members being kept constantly employed. As at cricket the one side bats and the other takes the field; but beyond that there is little or no resemblance between the two games.

4. **MINISTERS AT GREENWICH.**—The Ministerial fish dinner, which took place at the Ship Hotel, Greenwich, was taken advantage of by the leading Conservatives of the borough to give the Ministers a popular ovation. The High Street was decorated with flags; and the town, under the influence of this unwonted bunting, assumed quite a holiday appearance, the space in front of the Ship, near the pier, being occupied by an eager and expectant crowd. The fact of Ministers, at the end of their first session, coming in person to their great rival's borough, and reviving a custom which had become quite a local institution, was evidently considered, in the eyes of the local quidnuncs, as an act which quite took the wind out of the sails of the Liberals.

6. **THE EXETER REREDOS.**—An elaborate judgment in the Exeter reredos case was to-day delivered by the Dean of Arches, Sir Robert Phillimore. The decision appealed against was that the reredos be removed and the stone screen be replaced. The Dean of Arches reversed this decision. Taking up the points which had been urged, he held that the dean and chapter of a cathedral did not require a faculty to erect a reredos, that the bishop had no power to order its removal, and that if he had the power it ought not to be exercised, because the images were no more objectionable than was the crucifixion placed over the choir. The reredos will therefore remain, unless the decision should be reversed on appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

8. THE ARTILLERY VOLUNTEERS AT SHOEBOURNNESS.—The prizes won by the Volunteer Artillerists at Shoebournness were distributed by Sir Garnet Wolseley. Before the breaking up of the camp an order was issued by Colonel Godby, the commandant, who stated that he had the greatest pleasure in conveying to all present his unqualified satisfaction with the steady and soldierlike bearing of all ranks, and also with the great zeal and attention shown by them while at drill during the meeting. He added that the force while at Shoebournness had fully maintained the high reputation which it had deservedly acquired for discipline and regularity. The scene of the presentation was a very interesting one. The men were drawn up in review order, and the grand stand, erected in a few hours by the Royal Artillery men, was lively with flags. Sir Garnet inspected the ranks, after which the four brigades marched by in companies, headed by the 3d Middlesex band, all the ranks in marching order ready to return. Speeches were made, the first by Colonel Harcourt, President of the Association, expressing his wish that the War Office would afford facilities for a double division next year extending over a fortnight—one division one week, the other the next. Colonel Fisher having borne testimony to the excellent discipline and energy of the volunteers, the men were told to stand at ease, the winning detachments being marched down in succession to the front of the platform, and the men stepping in succession upon the dais, and receiving the trophies of their skill from the hands of Sir Garnet.

— A SUBMARINE TUNNEL.—The project to construct a tunnel between France and England is assuming a practical phase. The capitalists and engineers embarked in this gigantic enterprise demand a concession of thirty years instead of ninety-nine, usually accorded to railway companies, and ask for neither guarantee nor grant. Further, they are ready to advance a sum of four millions for preliminary investigations. The project in question consists in the immersing of a duct on the English and French coasts, and the boring of two long galleries from each side. Of the result of the enterprise (says the *Journal de Calais*) there can be no doubt. The soul of the enterprise—with MM. Michel Chevalier, Léon Say, and Rothschild—is M. Lavalley, an engineer, who has surmounted the greatest difficulties in the construction of the Suez Canal, and without whom that gigantic enterprise could not have been accomplished. M. Lavalley estimates the cost of the work at 150,000,000 fr. ; the English engineers think it will amount to 250,000,000 fr. He suggests that this work should be done partly by France and partly by England, and that to induce the two countries to press on this undertaking energetically there should be a bonus for the one which works the fastest.

12. DISASTROUS RAILWAY ACCIDENT.—One of the most destructive railway accidents ever known in South Wales has happened at Bargoed station, on the Rhymney Railway. At Bargoed there is a junction with the Brecon and Merthyr Railway, which runs by a very

heavy gradient through a valley so narrow as to be a mere gorge for some distance. There are some large collieries on the line, some of them belonging to the Dowlais Iron Company. The Rhymney Railway Company have running powers over the line as far as Dowlais Iron Works. A mineral train of forty ten-ton waggons, laden with coal, was taken out of the siding of the Dowlais Iron Company's Vochriew Colliery, drawn by one powerful tank engine, and with an ordinary brake-van at the tail. A drizzling rain had come on, which made the rails slippery, so that the brakes would not act with any effect. The speed increased with such rapidity that it soon became evident the train was running wild, and the brake whistles were sounded for the alarm of everything ahead. The distance between Deri station and the Bargoed junction, three miles, was traversed in a few seconds over two minutes. The curves on this part of the line are very sharp, and nothing but the tremendous weight of the train travelling at such a speed kept the waggons on the line. When the runaway arrived at the junction road, an engine, which had several detached waggons behind it, was taking water at a tank on the down main line, and into this locomotive the coal train dashed with indescribable force. The stationary engine was literally lifted off its wheels and pitched in exactly the same position into the ravine 100 feet below, while the engine of the runaway train rolled over with the shock and came to a stop on the side of the embankment, lying on its back. The waggons were crushed into one undistinguishable heap of broken iron and wood and coal, many of them being totally destroyed, while scarcely one of them escaped material injury. The driver and fireman were killed instantly, their remains being afterwards recovered from the wreck in a dreadful condition. The brakesman laid himself flat upon one of the trucks of coal, and was mixed up in the general wreck of coal and trucks, from which, however, he escaped most providentially without greater injury than a few concussions. The guard had previously, on finding the train could not be stopped, detached his van, and so saved himself. The driver and fireman of the watering engine had only just time to save themselves by jumping from their places; and the detached trucks, started by the collision, ran several miles down the main line, before they could be stopped, having been finally thrown off the rails at Hengoed. The damage done to locomotive and rolling stock is enormous. Had the runaway train been a few minutes earlier it would have come into collision with a Rhymney passenger train.

— A CURIOUS LAWSUIT has been tried at the Bristol Assizes. A gentleman residing at Falmouth brought an action against the medical superintendent of a lunatic asylum near Exeter. The plaintiff went mad through being crossed in a love affair, and was confined in the defendant's asylum. While there he jumped out of a window, and the shock, while restoring his reason, brought on paralysis. It was held that the defendant had not been guilty of negligence, and the plaintiff was nonuited.

— A LADIES' CRICKET MATCH.—A few days ago a match at cricket was played between eleven ladies of the parish of Nash and a similar team of ladies of the parish of Great Harwood, Bucks, the match causing unusual curiosity and excitement. The Nash ladies scored 115 runs in one innings against 86 scored by the ladies of Great Harwood in two innings. Mrs. T. B. Harrup, on the Nash side, batted in excellent form, and, hitting out *à la* "W. G.," contributed the tall score of 61 runs.

13. THE PRINCE OF WALES AT PLYMOUTH.—The handsome Guildhall which has just been completed at Plymouth was opened to-day by the Prince of Wales. The town had made great festive preparations. The streets were planted with trees, hung with flags, and spanned by triumphal arches.

On arriving at the new Guildhall buildings His Royal Highness was shown over the northern block or municipal offices. Thence crossing to the principal entrance of the southern block, he was presented with his rod of office, and formally received as Lord High Steward of the borough. An address was read by the Recorder (Mr. Cole, Q.C.), to which the Prince made a suitable reply. Prayer having been offered, the Mayor presented the Prince with a beautiful silver key, with which he opened the Guildhall doors. The Prince, accompanied by the Mayor and principal guests, retired to the Crown Court, which was fitted up as a reception room. The walls were hung with valuable works of art by ancient and modern masters. A banquet in the large hall followed, attended by nearly seven hundred ladies and gentlemen.

The new buildings are situated in the centre of the town. They are planned in two blocks, with an open space between them more than 100 feet wide. The whole group forms the most important example of modern Gothic in the West of England. It is in the Early Pointed style. The wings are treated in broad and simple masses, leading up to central features of striking richness and dignity. The chief building material is the blue-grey local limestone or marble, the plinths being granite, and the dressings of Portland stone. Polished serpentine and granite and the fine-grained Mansfield sandstone are also introduced in portions of the exterior.

On the following day, the Freemasons of Devon and Cornwall held a United Grand Lodge of the two provinces to give the Prince a welcome upon his first masonic appearance among them. Nearly 3,000 brethren assembled, wearing craft clothing and Royal Arch jewels. They marched through the principal streets of the town to the Guildhall, where the lodge was opened in ancient forms. The Prince, on entering the hall, took the chair, and was saluted as a P.G.M. of England. The brethren then sang "God Bless the Prince of Wales," and followed this by enthusiastic cheering. The Earl of Mount-Edgcumbe read the address of welcome on behalf of the Provincial Grand Masters, grand officers, and brethren of Devon and Cornwall. The Prince, in his reply, touched with

much feeling upon the subject of his recovery from a severe and dangerous illness, to which their address had referred.

15. PRESENTATION OF COLOURS.—New colours were presented to-day to the 106th Bombay Light Infantry, in the drill-ground at Parkhurst near Newport, Isle of Wight, by Her Imperial Highness the Crown Princess of Germany. The ground was kept by the 101st Royal Bengal Fusiliers, and a guard of honour of 100 men from the same regiment, with the Queen's colours and the band, was stationed at the entrance to receive the Crown Princess and the Crown Prince of Germany on their arrival. The latter wore the silver helmet, surmounted with a black and white feather plume, and the white uniform of the cuirassier regiment which he commands. The colours were handed to the Princess, who gave them to Lieutenants Boyle and Jarvis, the two officers kneeling to receive them, and said: "Officers, non-commissioned officers, and men of the 106th—It is not only a pleasure but an honour to me to take part in the ceremony which has caused your assembly here to-day. I feel much gratification in having been asked to give new colours to a brave regiment which has served its country well in India and in Persia. May new laurels be won under these colours wherever they may be carried, and may they lead you to victory whenever our beloved Sovereign's honour and the safety of the country require it!" In the afternoon the regiment marched into Newport and deposited the old colours in the parish church of St. Thomas with the usual formalities.

The regimental colour bears on its tattered folds the names "Persia," "Bushire," and "Kooshab." It disembarked at Portsmouth from India in January last.

REGATTAS.—The regatta of the Royal Victoria Yacht Club ended to-day in pleasanter weather than the visitors to Ryde enjoyed in the middle of the week. The Commodore's Cup, presented by the Marquis of Exeter, was won by the "St. Ursula" schooner.

The Royal Albert Yacht Club Regatta took place at Southsea. The chief prize was the Albert Cup, value 100*l.*, for which the "Kriemhilda," "Oimara," and "Arrow" started. The "Oimara" gave up before the end of the contest, and the "Kriemhilda" secured an easy victory. A race for yawls fell to the "Florinda," and the same vessel carried off the chief town cup on Tuesday, the "Neva" and "Sea Belle" winning the second and third prizes respectively. The "Odetta" won the thirty guinea cup given by Mr. Ashbury for yachts which had never won a prize, the "Vanessa" the twenty-five guinea prize, and the "Wave" the 10*l.* gold cup.

An incident that caused a momentary alarm occurred at Cowes during the Regatta of the Royal Yacht Squadron. In the race for the Queen's Cup two of the competing yachts were the "Kriemhilda," a cutter of 105 tons, belonging to Count Batthyany, and the schooner "Shark," of 201 tons, owned by the Duke of Rutland. Count Batthyany's yacht, which had the Prince of Wales on board, in passing round the Nab lightship luffed right under

the schooner's bow. The helm of the "Shark" was put hard down, but as her mainsheet had been let go she did not at once answer the helm. She thus crashed into the port bow of the "Kriemhilda," smashing the bulwarks, tearing down part of the cross-trees, and making the smaller vessel heel over so much as to put the lee side of her deck under water. The Prince, with Count Munster, stood on deck, wrapped in an oilskin overcoat. His Royal Highness took the matter very coolly. The yachts soon got clear, but the "Kriemhilda" was obliged to retire from the race.

The Thames Regatta, for professionals, took place on the 15th and 17th: but, though the course had been shortened, all races being rowed from Putney to Hammersmith, the entries were scarcely so numerous as usual. The rule which barred any amalgamation of north and south completely spoilt the famous Tyne four, as Sadler was unable to row, and the Thames scored a very easy victory both in the fours and pairs.

THE ABYSSINIAN CROSS.—The Grand Cross of the Abyssinian Order of Solomon's Seal and the Holy Cross has been sent by King John of Ethiopia to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. The cross, which is of pure gold from Senaar, was made expressly for the Prince by order of King John, who will perhaps be better remembered as our former ally, Prince Kassai, of Tigré. He met General Sir Robert Napier on his return from Magdala, and they exchanged diplomatic compliments. The ornament is composed of the double triangle or device of Solomon's seal, inscribed with the name and titles of King John, and of the Coptic cross, in filigree, adorned with a fine emerald and four rubies. It is thus emblematic of the traditional Jewish origin of the Ethiopian empire, and of its subsequent conversion to Christianity. The whole is surmounted by the ancient imperial crown of Ethiopia, such as it is represented in the portraits of the kings of the old Ethiopian empire, in the ancient church at Gondar. This cross has been brought to England by Baron de Cosson, a gentleman of French family, but an Englishman by birth, who spent last year shooting in Abyssinia, and passed several weeks with King John, in his camp at Ambatchana, near Lake Tsana.

16. AN ALARMING CONFLAGRATION took place to-day at Market Harborough in Leicestershire, commencing in a thatched stack of bark in a large tan yard, situated almost in the centre of the town. The yard contained several thousand tons of tanning bark, and the burning embers, aided by a strong south-westerly wind, were carried over the town in different directions, and falling on to the thatched roofs, which are very numerous in the town, set fire to it in nine different places. The local volunteer fire brigade, which possesses three engines, being overpowered by the numerous outbreaks, the aid of the Leicester fire engines was sought, but pending their arrival the inhabitants, by the application of an almost innumerable number of wet blankets and buckets of water to the thatched roofs, and the more complete unroofing of some

premises, succeeded in effectually putting out the distant fires. The tan yard was entirely destroyed, and about nine buildings situated in different parts of the town were seriously damaged.

17. THE KING OF DENMARK and his son Prince Waldemar have paid a visit to Leith, arriving in the Fifth of Forth in the frigate "Fylland." Landing at the Victoria Dock jetty, the King and the Prince proceeded in an ordinary cab to the Douglas Hotel, where they were met by the Princess of Wales. At noon the Lord Provost of Edinburgh was presented to His Majesty, whom he welcomed to the city on behalf of the corporation. His lordship expressed a desire that a deputation from the magistrates should have the pleasure of presenting to His Majesty an address of congratulation and welcome on the occasion of his visit to Edinburgh. At the conclusion of the King's visit he was accompanied back to Copenhagen by the Princess of Wales.

18. PLAGUE OF ANTS.—The papers contain several reports from the suburbs of London of a visitation of vast armies of ants, both winged and wingless. An Ealing correspondent saw the winged ants coming up through holes in the earth in company with the wingless ants. At Eltham and Bexley Heath they formed large dark patches on the lawns. In the King's Road, Peckham, the railings and stone copings were literally covered with ants, red and black. One correspondent states that the ants are migrating, and that as soon as the winged ants have found a home their wings will drop off. A Forest Hill correspondent, who says he has noticed in previous years the same movement about this period of the season, conjectures that the winged ants are being driven out by the more active and useful members of the community; he has seen on one particular day his lawn almost alive with the winged ants. Mr. Almaric Rumsey saw them at Wimbledon station, and on arriving in London found another swarm on Waterloo Bridge. He went by the Underground Railway to South Kensington, and while walking to the Redcliffe Estate found the ants in swarms upon the pavement. He satisfied himself that the winged and unwinged creatures were the same insects, differing in nothing else. He thinks they entered the metropolis from a northerly direction, but they seem to have been nowhere more plentiful than on the south-east side of the Thames.

19. THE NATIONAL EISTEDDFOD OF WALES had its meeting at Bangor this year, and attracted an immense and enthusiastic audience. The Bishop of Bangor, who presided, claimed for Wales that, considering her size, she had a fair share in the highest judicial and political posts of the empire. He pointed out that the great primary objects of these national Welsh gatherings were the promotion of the industry of the country and the elevation of the character of its people. They were not held in order that people might praise and compliment one another, but to give a liberal and ready encouragement to the love of progress which was visible in the Welsh, and to encourage as far as possible everything which would

tend to the moral and spiritual improvement of the country. A Welsh oration was delivered by Mr. Morgan Lloyd, M.P. for the Anglesea Boroughs. The principal feature of the day was the choral competition for a prize of forty guineas and a gold medal. These were won by the Carnarvon Philharmonic Society.

— THE PECULIAR PEOPLE.—A man named Thomas Hines, belonging to the sect called "Peculiar People," whose tenets forbid them to call in medical aid in sickness, was tried before Baron Pigott for a misdemeanour in having contributed to the death of his child by neglecting to provide it with proper food and medical attendance. The child died of inflammation, and it was the opinion of the surgeon who made a *post mortem* examination that he might have saved its life if he had been called in. Baron Pigott ruled that, however mistaken the parent might have been in his conduct, there was nothing like intentional or culpable neglect of duty in it, and he was of opinion that there was no case to go to the jury. A verdict of "Not guilty" was accordingly returned.

22. FATAL BATHING ACCIDENT.—Mr. Clowes, a master of the City of London School, was drowned to-day while bathing at Whitby. Mr. Clowes and a young man who was bathing with him were both fair swimmers, but having got into a strong current, and their strength beginning to fail, they cried for help, but the noise of the somewhat heavy breakers prevented their voices being heard. One of them was seen to be "splashing about;" but this was looked on as an extra bit of exercise, and there seemed nothing unusual till Mr. Clowes sank and his companion was seen on his feet struggling for the shore. A gentleman ran for a boat, but it was half an hour before one could be brought to the spot, and then the body could not be found.

24. DEATH ON SNOWDON.—The City of London School has lost another master by the death of Mr. Wilton on Snowdon. Mr. Wilton started from Llanberis on the 10th of this month for the ascent of Snowdon, and was heard no more of till a fortnight later, when his remains were found in a crevasse on the Capel Curig side of the mountain. It is supposed that in descending by the Capel Curig route to Bettwsycocoed he lost his way, and so met his death.

25. A MANCHESTER TRAGEDY.—An extraordinary sensation has been created at Manchester by the occurrence of a dreadful tragedy at one of the clubs of the city. Mr. Alexander McLean, a young merchant, went to Prince's Club, in Cheapside, of which he is a member, and, in accordance with his usual custom, resorted to the committee room for the purpose of writing private letters. Previous to his arrival Mr. Herbert Thomas Barge, another member of the club, and also a young merchant, had called at the club, and in a somewhat excited manner asked the porter whether Mr. McLean was in. Mr. McLean had not been long in the club before Mr. Barge returned, and, being informed that the gentleman he had asked for was now in, went upstairs. The porter saw him enter the room where Mr. McLean was alone writing, and before

closing the door noticed the two gentlemen shake hands. Scarcely, however, had he got to the bottom of the stairs when he heard three pistol-shots in rapid succession, and on rushing back to the committee-room he saw both gentlemen lying on the floor, and blood streaming from their heads. The police were at once called in, and medical aid was immediately sent for. Before the doctors arrived, however, both gentlemen were dead. No papers were found on the deceased which threw any light on the occurrence. From the position of the wounds, and the fact that a six-barrelled revolver was found in the hand of Mr. Baige, it was evident that he had shot Mr. McLean and then destroyed himself. There was no one within hearing of the gentlemen at the time. Curiously enough the only other gentleman in the club at the time was Mr. Barge's brother. Mr. Barge had been recently married. From the evidence given by his brother on the inquest, it appeared that the unfortunate man was of unsound mind.

27. THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION CONGRESS, which has been held at Belfast during the past week, was brought to a successful conclusion to-day with a series of excursions in the neighbourhood. The meeting has been eminently placid throughout, and unmarked by any sensational incident that will make it memorable above the three-and-forty meetings that have been held; but a great amount of discussion outside was aroused by the inaugural address of the President, Professor Tyndall, for which we refer our readers to our "Science" department. The Town Council and public bodies, in their corporate capacities, did very little to welcome the Association, but the inhabitants made ample amends. The hospitality dispensed by private ladies and gentlemen was simply unbounded; and the visitors were made, from first to last, to feel themselves thoroughly at home.

31. ALPINE ACCIDENTS.—News has been received at Leeds of the death of Mr. J. A. Garth Marshall, of that town, on Mont Blanc, by falling down a crevasse along with a guide. Mr. Garth Marshall was accompanied by two guides in the ascent of Mont Blanc, when the party fell down a deep crevasse, from which one of the guides was able to extricate himself. Mr. Garth Marshall and the other guide were killed by the fall. On the same day an alarming accident happened near Pontresina. A lady ascending the Rosegg glacier for the purpose of gathering some specimens of the "edelweiss," the famous flower supposed to grow only at a height of eight or ten thousand feet above the level of the sea, slipped and partly fell partly rolled over a precipice, to a depth of about fifty or sixty feet. She was rescued with difficulty, and conveyed to the hotel.

— AN EXTRAORDINARY BALLOON ADVENTURE has just taken place. M. Duruof and his wife had undertaken to ascend on the 31st at Calais, and the balloon was inflated and ready in the public square, when as the wind was blowing directly to the north-east—*i.e.*, towards a tract of ocean where no continent afforded

security for an aeronaut—M. Duruof was strongly advised to postpone his ascent. The mayor indeed forbade it, and the crowd was dispersing, when some roughs began jeering the aeronaut, and determined him to seek his doom. Duruof said to his wife, "Let us know how to die," and, taking her by the arm, led the way back to the public square. With some difficulty he obtained possession of the car, under pretence of making captive ascents. There were but few people about. He fitted the car to the balloon, mounted into it, seated his wife by his side, and the two together rose into the darkness of the night. Hardly had they departed when a cry rose through the whole town; people rushed to the jetty, and were just in time to see the balloon mounting rapidly into space, and journeying quickly towards the North Sea. The general emotion was indescribable, and more than one of the spectators was moved to tears. At half-past seven on this gloomy evening the balloon was lost sight of in the mists which veiled the horizon. The unfortunate Duruof and his wife had with them neither provisions nor any kind of warm covering. The rash aeronauts were given up for lost, but news came a few days later that they had been picked up in the German Ocean, and landed at Grimsby. We give some extracts from M. Duruof's account of the adventure: "At 7.55 p.m. the balloon went up amid the acclamations of the crowd, and for the space of 300 metres went in a northerly direction. Our course then changed to the north-east, and shortly afterwards we saw the French and English lighthouses at sea, and we seemed to be going more towards England than towards France. There were no vessels to be seen at sea, and night was coming on. I felt that in that case I should be obliged to make a long voyage, and must economise my ballast. At 4 a.m., just before sunrise, I threw all the light ballast out, and discovered that during the night I had been driven in a north-easterly direction. Not knowing the distance I was from the nearest land, and fearful of being driven by another current to the northward, I resolved to try and lower myself on to a vessel. It is impossible to describe my extreme thirst, and my poor wife—whom I tried to console by telling her that we were going in the right direction—did not lose courage. I showed her two vessels in the direction we were falling, and I made her understand that we were trying to get stopped by one of them. Of the eight bags of ballast I had taken with me I had only discharged three, and I should have been able, if needful, to continue my journey for thirteen or fourteen hours. I noticed that the smallest of the vessels, a fishing-smack, manœuvred and tried to cross my path. The sea was very rough indeed. Without any fear I opened the valve, and descended until the ropes were trailing in the water, and in an instant we were past the vessel. The crew of the smack, however, launched their small boat, and two men rowed it towards us. It was then six o'clock; and, seeing the good will of the fishermen to come to help us, I resolved to stop the speed of the balloon by springing the valve until the car filled with water, and thus give

more resistance to the progress of the balloon. However, when I turned round I could not see the vessel. From time to time tremendous waves broke upon the balloon, covering us with water; but still the balloon resisted, and my fear then was that the balloon might burst, in which case we should assuredly have been lost. At seven o'clock we again sighted the smack on the horizon, and saw that she was pursuing us, and we noticed that by degrees she came closer to us. The cold was very severe, and our limbs were becoming benumbed. Our strength was failing us, and the hope of being overtaken by the smack was the only thing which gave strength to our arms to hold on. My wife's limbs were benumbed, and at each jerk of the balloon she became weaker and weaker. The smack continued to approach us, and was now within 500 metres. I pointed it out to my wife, and it renewed her courage. What was more tiring was being obliged to hold her in my arms. The smack was then very near us, and I raised myself on the ropes and saluted the crew. They saw us and launched their boat, being 200 metres ahead of us. The small boat was manned by the master (William Oxley) and the mate. They came nearer to the car and took hold of the rope. At this time their boat was nearly sinking, on account of the strong jerks of the balloon; but they did not lose courage, and, taking hold of my wife's hand, dragged her as best they could into their boat. I saw the danger they were in, and I began to cut the ropes that were following the balloon. I had cut the greater part of them when I was dashed against the boat, into which I had let myself fall. I, like my wife, lay helpless at the bottom of the boat. The men let go the ropes of the car, and the balloon rushed off at a mighty speed towards Norway. The boat returned to the smack; we were put on board and taken into the cabin, and a good fire did not fail to bring us round. We have only to thank the men for their care and the kindness showed to us during the voyage to Grimsby." M. Duruof's balloon was landed some days afterwards at Hull, having been picked up by a fishing-smack at sea, about 250 miles from the Humber, and 100 from the Norwegian coast.—A medal and a reward in money were subsequently given by the French Government to the captain and mate of the fishing-smack who rescued M. Duruof and his wife.

— DEATH FROM SODA-WATER.—A curious case is reported from Lennoxtown on good authority. A lady in delicate health was ordered to drink freely of soda-water. She did so, and shortly afterwards manifested all the symptoms that would attach to a patient suffering from the effects of poisoning. Suspicion eventually fell on the soda-water. A bottle was sent for analysis to Dr. Wallace, Glasgow, with the result that the aerated liquid was found to contain lead in the proportion of nine-tenths of a grain in a gallon. The effect of that is stated in the following sentence in Dr. Wallace's report: "Ordinary drinking water is considered dangerous if it contains one-tenth of a grain of lead per gallon, and

some authorities consider even one-twentieth of a grain deleterious to the health if the water is used continuously for a series of weeks or months." In the case referred to, the patient drank this soda-water to the extent of six or seven bottles daily, swallowing in the same time no less than three-eighths of a grain of lead.

SEPTEMBER.

2. LORD RIPON AND THE FREEMASONS.—At a Grand Lodge of Freemasons of England, held at the Hall in Great Queen Street on Wednesday night, the Grand Secretary read a letter from the Marquis of Ripon, Grand Master, stating that the writer found himself no longer able to discharge the duties of that office, and must therefore resign it. Upon the motion of the Grand Registrar, it was agreed to accept, with regret, the resignation of his lordship; and a letter from the Earl of Carnarvon, Deputy Grand Master, which pointed out that the government of the craft would now devolve on the Prince of Wales, as Past Grand Master, having been read, a deputation was appointed to invite His Royal Highness to act as Grand Master until a new election should take place. At a subsequent meeting the Prince was formally elected Grand Master. The Marquis of Ripon's retirement was occasioned by his conversion to the Church of Rome, an announcement which caused great astonishment and commotion in political and aristocratic circles.

5. A SERIOUS RAILWAY COLLISION occurred near Preston to-day. A goods train was standing on the main line at Maudlands, near Preston, and this had brought to a standstill a special train of fourteen or fifteen empty carriages, on the way from Blackpool to Manchester. While these trains were blocking the way, a return excursion train came up from Blackpool, on the way to East Lancashire and Yorkshire, and at a brisk speed dashed into the empty train. The shock is described as terrible; the brake-van and carriage at the end of that train were smashed, and the engine of the excursion train, which consisted of seven or eight carriages, had the buffers and funnel broken and front part damaged. Fifteen passengers in the excursion train were more or less injured, and all received a very severe shaking. The explanation given of the cause of the accident is that the distance signal was down, and that the "home" signal is indistinctly seen at that part of the line.

6. A PUBLIC FUNERAL took place on the 6th in St. Paul's Cathedral. The body of John Henry Foley, the sculptor, who died last week at Hampstead, was conveyed thence to Burlington House, where the members and associates of the Royal Academy formed a small and unassuming procession to follow it to St.

Paul's. After the service had been simply performed, without music, by the Cathedral clergy, the coffin was lowered into the crypt.

10. THE WORK OF THE LONDON SCHOOL BOARD.—A School Board school has been opened at St. James Street, Camberwell, by Sir Charles Reed, the Chairman of the London School Board. It will accommodate 590 children, and cost, including the site, 7,186*l*. Sir Charles Reed opened another school, on the following day, at Tottenham Road, Kingsland, which will accommodate 726 children, at a cost, including site, of 12,300*l*. At the opening of the Camberwell school, Sir Charles gave an account of the work of the London School Board, and replied to some of the criticisms which have been passed upon it. He was ready, he said, to prove with mathematical accuracy that in every school the Board had built, after full consideration, two points had been affirmatively proved—the presence of the children and the needs of the district. He calculated that the cost of the schools amounted to between 11*l*. and 12*l*. per head of the children educated in them; a lower proportion than that expended on the schools in Manchester and Sheffield. The Board had in this district twenty-one visitors, who were charged with the duty of going from house to house where children were living, and if the children were not going to school, to find the cause, and to try and induce the parents to comply with the law. These visitors had no right to say to which school the children should go, but only that they should go to school. This was called “compulsion,” but he called it persuasion, for compulsion only was used when parents refused or neglected to send their children. Where the neglect was found a “Notice A” was issued, and on the issue of rather more than 3,000 of these notices no fewer than 2,311 children came to school. In all, on the issue of notices A and B in Lambeth—the B notice being, that unless the child came to school the parent would have to attend before the committee or a magistrate—5,057 children came to school. Thus it would be seen that the twenty-one visitors had done their duty by getting to school 5,057 children without more pressure than a notice. Some of these children had gone to Board schools, but more than a third of the number to denominational schools; so that the Board was doing good to those schools at the same time that it was filling its own. At the present time, it was known to the Board that there were 9,099 children in this district not in any school, and there were 14,603 children in the district in non-efficient schools.

Mr. E. H. Currie, who followed, said, that the average cost of the sixty schools already built and opened by the London Board—and this one made the sixty-fourth—had been 9*l*. 13*s*. 4*d*. per child. This meant the cost, he particularly desired they should notice, of the permanent new schools, without taking account of the temporary ones.

10. TERRIBLE RAILWAY CATASTROPHE NEAR NORWICH.—The rail-

way accidents of the present summer, though by no means rare or unattended by loss of life, have up to this time been mild compared with those which startled the public in such rapid succession last year. To-day, however, this comparative security in travelling has been rudely shaken by the most frightful railway disaster we have been called upon to record since that which occurred at Abergele in the year 1868. The particulars of the catastrophe are as follows:—

A train carrying mails to Norwich leaves Great Yarmouth every evening at 8.46, and is joined at Reedham, twelve miles from Norwich, by another train from Lowestoft. This junction was effected that night in the ordinary course, and the combined train proceeded to Brundall, three stations further on. Here it had to wait, because the line is single, until the arrival of the evening express train from Norwich to Great Yarmouth, or until permission should be given to the engine-driver to proceed. A mistaken order from Mr. T. Cooper, the night-inspector at Norwich station, allowed the down express to leave Norwich, while the combined mail-train from Great Yarmouth was suffered to come on from Brundall. The consequence was that the doomed trains met at Thorpe, nearly two miles from Norwich, and ran headlong into each other. The rails were slippery from rain; there was a slight curve in the line at the fatal spot, so that the lights of neither train could be seen; there was no time to apply the brakes, and the two engines rushed at each other at full speed. The engine drawing the combined mail-train was one of the most approved modern construction and of great power. The engine drawing the train from Norwich was a lighter one, but had acquired, with its train, a considerable momentum. In the crash which followed the collision, the funnel of the first engine was carried away, and the engine from Norwich rushed on the top of its assailant, some of the carriages of each train following, until a pyramid was formed of the locomotives, the shattered carriages, and the wounded, dead, or dying passengers.

The express train consisted of fourteen carriages, and the mail-train of thirteen, so that the two trains were pretty nearly equal in weight. It is certain, however, that the mail-train must have had a much greater momentum. Both drivers had reason for putting on increased speed, believing as they did that each train was waiting for the other; but the engine of the mail-train was heavier and more powerful than that of the express, besides which there is a slight decline all the way to Brundall. It is thought that the speed of the up mail could not have been less than from thirty to thirty-five miles an hour, while the rate at which the express was travelling would be from twenty to twenty-five miles. The two engines and tenders weighed, one forty-five, the other forty tons. This made some eighty tons of metal hurled, almost, through the air from opposite points, to say nothing of the dead weight of the train behind. Mathema-

ticians may calculate with this weight and velocity what was the force exerted at the point of impact. People living close by thought they heard a thunder-peal. The darkness of the night, the heavy rain that was falling, and a slight curve round which the mail-train was making its way must have prevented the two drivers from seeing each other's lights till the trains were close together. How this was in reality can never be known, as the four poor fellows who manned the two locomotives, and could alone bear witness, were killed in a moment. Besides the four firemen, sixteen passengers were killed on the spot, or died before the night was over, and about fifty were seriously wounded, of whom five died in the course of a few days, making a total of twenty-five killed.

There was no difficulty in finding the cause of the catastrophe, the certain approach of which was indeed known at the Norwich station before it happened, so that every possible provision was immediately made for the relief of the sufferers. The line from Norwich to Brundall is a single one, and the up mail from Yarmouth is bound to wait at Brundall for the arrival of the down express, unless telegraphed for in consequence of the express being behind time. On this occasion the telegraphic message, which had been written by the inspector but not yet signed, was sent, through some mistake, by the telegraph clerk; and a few minutes later the inspector, not knowing that the message had gone, allowed the down express, which had arrived rather behind time, to proceed. Hardly had he done so, when he discovered that the fatal message had been sent. A second message was immediately despatched to Brundall to stop the mail if possible; but the answer came back, "Mail gone," and nothing remained but to make what preparations time would allow to meet the inevitable catastrophe. On the inquest held at Norwich afterwards, a verdict of "Manslaughter" was given against both Cooper, the inspector, and Robson, the telegraph clerk: at the inquest held by the county coroner, Robson only was pronounced guilty. It may be some encouragement to nervous railway travellers to learn that it is possible to meet with even such an accident as this without being so much as aware of it. We are told that two gentlemen who were in the last carriage of one of the encountering trains, finding themselves stopped not far from the spot to which they were bound, thought there was some unimportant delay, and that they might as well get out and walk to their destination, which they did. It was not till next morning that they heard of the catastrophe.

12. AN ATROCIOUS MURDER has been committed at Aldershot, the victim being Captain John Dent Bird, 20th Hussars, and his murderer a private in D Troop of the same regiment named Thomas Smith. The troop, which was commanded by the deceased officer, was undergoing its annual course of musketry practice, and twenty men had marched from barracks for the

purpose of firing their second period in the third class—that is, at 250 and 300 yards. Sergeant Fairhead, the non-commissioned officer in charge of the left squad, had just delivered his first shot, and was stooping to record it on the register which lay on a camp stool just to the front, when a shot was fired close at his side, and he felt the bullet almost touch his face. Captain Bird, who was standing three or four feet in advance, and midway between the two squads, received the contents of the carbine in his right shoulder-blade, the bullet passing through his body and coming out at the breast. He sank gradually to the ground, turning completely over on his back in his fall, and Sergeant Fairhead thought he had a fainting fit; but on the captain pointing to his breast and unbuttoning his patrol jacket he perceived that he had been shot. The sergeant asked him, “Who did it?” and he thought the very faint reply given was, “I don’t know.” He then, turning to the squad, asked, “Who fired that shot?” to which no reply was made, the men for the moment being apparently dumbfounded. Walking up to Smith, Fairhead put his hand on his shoulder and said, “Tom Smith, was that you fired that shot?” To which Smith replied, “I done it; who else do you think did?” at the same time unbuckling his waist-belt, and throwing his carbine on the ground as a token of surrender.

A surgeon was immediately on the spot, but nothing could be done, and Captain Bird expired in five minutes. Smith was committed for wilful murder. He said that he fired the shot by accident, but the evidence on the inquest went against that explanation, and his motive for the act, if premeditated, is supposed to be the sentence to seven days’ confinement to barracks for insubordination lately passed on him by Captain Bird. The unfortunate officer was only thirty-two years of age.

BLONDIN AND MADAME GODDARD SHIPWRECKED.—A gentleman who was a passenger by the “*Flintshire*,” which was wrecked in Torres Straits while on her voyage to Sydney, gives an account of the disaster, in which he says:—

“All the female passengers, amongst whom was Madame Arabella Goddard, were got into the lifeboat first; then their husbands and friends were permitted to go down, the crew having been previously told off to their respective boats. . . . We started for the town at about six p.m., and from this hour I can only tell you how the lifeboat with all the women got along. In this boat we had two great celebrities, Madame Arabella Goddard and Blondin. With wind and tide in our favour, we got along very comfortably with eight oars, most of the rowers being passengers (the Malays not proving much use), until about nine p.m., when deluging showers of rain came on, which drenched every one in the boat, the ladies suffering very much from the cold, wet, and fatigue. The rain was so thick that it was impossible to see the land to steer to, consequently we had to leave off pulling while

it lasted, and we dared not go ashore, as the blacks here are very dangerous. However, this night they did us good service, as they had some fires on one of the hills which materially assisted us in finding out the course. About twelve, midnight, the lights of the town being distinguished by the second officer, we hailed them with a shout of joy, as we then knew we were on the right course. The ladies plucked up courage, and the babies in the boat began to cry most piteously—the poor little creatures were almost starved with cold and hunger. After a heavy night's work we arrived at Townsville at half-past two a.m., June 21, and a smaller boat having arrived half-an-hour before us, we found Mr. Burns, the agent, ready to meet us at the wharf. He told us off to the nearest hotels, which happened to be pretty full, so that most of us had to lie on sofas until morning. . . . Mr. Blondin returned to the ship on Tuesday, 22nd, to see about his heavy baggage and apparatus, but was informed that nothing could be taken out of the hold, as they wanted weight in that particular part of the vessel. Madame Goddard is in the same fix with her piano and valuable baggage. I hear that their conjoined effects are valued at 4,000*l.*, and are not insured."

18. A FUNGUS EXHIBITION was opened in Aberdeen to-day. The idea of the exhibition was first suggested by the Rev. Mr. Ferguson, of New Pitsligo, in the "*Scottish Naturalist*" for April. The suggestion was readily taken up by fungologists and men of science, and the result was an exhibition which gentlemen entitled to speak with authority say was never equalled in this country. The specimens numbered about 7,000. Almost every county in Scotland made large contributions, while England and Wales sent a number of exhibits. In fact, almost every fungologist in Britain contributed specimens. A considerable portion of the fungi belonged to the larger classes, but there were also collections of microscopic fungi, and important additions to the British flora. Several species of fungi new to science were exhibited.

19. LAUNCH OF THE "DEUTSCHLAND."—This fine new ironclad frigate of the German Imperial Navy was to-day launched on the Thames. The "*Deutschland*" has been built by Mr. J. D. A. Samuda, M.P., of Poplar (of the well-known firm of Samuda Brothers), at his shipbuilding establishment at Poplar. This vessel, and also a sister ship, the "*Kaiser*," already launched and now nearly completed, were contracted for about two years ago, to be built for the Imperial German Government. The "*Deutschland*" was designed by Mr. E. J. Reed, the late Chief Constructor of the English Admiralty. Her general features and arrangements are similar to our ironclad "*Hercules*." The vessel was christened by Baroness Von Schroetter, who stated that she had received the special command of the German Emperor to undertake this interesting ceremony. The arrangements were perfect, and included a mechanical contrivance by which the dog-shores

were disengaged by the lady herself cutting a small rope fastening, and thus actually launching the vessel herself without assistance of any sort.

15. THE DONCASTER RACES commenced with the Fitzwilliam Stakes, which Blenheim won easily enough against Thorn and Wallsend. The race for the St. Leger Stakes was run on the 16th, the horses coming to the goal in the following order:—

Mr Launde's Apology, by Adventurer—Mandiagora (J. Osborne)	1
Sir R. Bulkeley's Leolinus (T. Osborne)	2
Mr. W. R. Marshall's Trent (T. Cannon)	3
Mr. J. Astley's The Scamp (Jewitt)	4

The race was run at a tremendous pace from start to finish, the time, 3 min. 16 sec., being the fastest on record. The great feature of the week was the success of the Middleham stable, which swept all before it with Apology, Holy Fiir, and Lily Agnes. Since Blair Athol came striding home through the rain just ten years ago, no Northern animal has won the St. Leger; and the scene as Apology passed the post and returned to the weighing-room baffles all description. The Alexandra Plate was won by Holy Fiir, and the Doncaster Cup by Lily Agnes.

16. AQUARIUM AT SOUTHPORT.—The Pavilion Winter Gardens and Aquarium that have been provided for Southport, a place of sea-side residence that is each year growing in favour with the Lancashire people, was formally opened to-day. There was a large assemblage, including the Mayors of Southport and several neighbouring towns. A leading feature of the day's proceedings was a lecture by Mr. Frank Buckland. The gardens and aquarium are owned by a limited company, the inhabitants of the town being the principal shareholders. They occupy about nine acres of ground, with a large sea-frontage. The tanks in the aquarium, which are variously furnished, are supplied with water by engines capable of raising 10,000 gallons per hour.

— THE PLYMOUTH HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS was opened on the same day by an address from the Bishop of Exeter. This school is the first of a series intended to be started for the purpose of advancing the higher education of girls in the West of England. It is unsectarian in character, and the council of management includes members of several denominations, the bishop being president.

— THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF ORIENTALISTS held its second annual meeting this week at the Royal Institution, Albemarle Street, under the presidency of Dr. Birch, F.R.S., Keeper of Oriental Antiquities in the British Museum. Interesting addresses were delivered on subjects of Oriental science in the different sections, and at the close of the week the Lord Mayor entertained the members of the Congress at the Mansion House. A great variety of nationalities were represented on the occasion.

21. BALLOON TRIP.—One of the quickest balloon trips on record was made to-day from the Crystal Palace. The balloons

Duke of Edinburgh and La Continent—the former containing Mr. Charles Spencer and Mr. Lithgoe, the latter Mr. Wight and Mr. Webb—left the grounds of the Palace at 4.40 p.m., passing over Forest Hill, New Cross, Isle of Dogs, Stratford, and Chigwell. There they parted company, the descent of La Continent being watched by Messrs. Spencer and Lithgoe from the Duke of Edinburgh at a height of 2,000 feet from the earth. There was a strong under-current blowing, and the balloon was dragged over several fields, giving its occupants some awkward bumps before it was landed. The Duke of Edinburgh continued its journey over Epping and Saffron Walden to Haverhill, where Messrs. Spencer and Lithgoe ventured to descend; but, owing to the thick woodlands, they were compelled to make another ascent, again passing through the clouds at an altitude of two and a half miles, and at a speed of sixty miles per hour. The Wash and the German Ocean now appeared in sight, and it was determined to descend. The valve was opened, and the balloon rapidly descended, the grapnels soon feeling the ground. Suddenly a sharp tug was felt, and upon the occupants looking out from the balloon it was seen that the grapnel had torn up a small oak, and was dragging it along the ground. The balloon ultimately reached the ground in safety, but not till Messrs. Spencer and Lithgoe had experienced a severe shaking, the distance (seventy miles) having been accomplished in one hour and twenty minutes.

24. THE BESSEMER SALOON STEAMER was successfully launched this afternoon at Hull from the yard of Earle's Shipbuilding and Engineering Company. This vessel is built, like the twin ship *Castalia*, with a view to secure her passengers against the horrors of sea-sickness; but the principle upon which she is constructed is entirely different. The Bessemer has very much the appearance of a breastwork turret-ship. She is shaped alike at bow and stern; and for 48 ft. from each end, she has a freeboard of about 3 ft. only. Her total length at the water-line is 350 ft.; and the raised central portion, rising 8 ft. above the low bow and stern, is 254 ft. long, and extends the whole width of the vessel, 60 ft. over all. In the centre is a "swinging saloon," 70 ft. long, and it is hoped that the passengers who occupy this saloon, which is fitted up with every comfort, will be entirely free from the pitching and rolling motions of the vessel. It remains to be seen whether either of these ingeniously contrived vessels will secure us immunity from the sufferings of the sea-passage.

26. A SUBTERRANEAN FIRE has been burning for some little time past in some unoccupied land at Sheffield. It seems that the owner of the land in question, in order to level its somewhat uneven original surface for building purposes, had an immense quantity of slag and waste furnace material tipped on to it, the material being obtained from the blast furnaces of the Atlas Works. The roads were also made in the same way. A few days ago it was noticed that the whole area—embracing probably the

greater part of an acre—was burning, the fire, doubtless, originating in the slag, &c., being thrown down in a heated condition. Steam also evaporated from the surface, and penetrated into the cellars and other parts of the houses just above. An excessively offensive smell pervaded the atmosphere of these dwellings, the inhabitants of which were afraid of ultimate suffocation. An examination was made, and it was found that the waste “made ground” and parts of the long length of road were not only burning, but in a red-hot state. Arrangements were at once entered into with the Sheffield Water Works Company, from whose mains a copious supply was poured on the surface. As soon as the water spread over the fiery mass, a series of explosions took place. Since then, the supply of water has been constantly kept flowing, with the effect of considerably reducing the fire. The sewer has been opened and puddled up, so as to prevent the effluvia and steam entering the dwelling-houses, and deep trenches have been cut in various directions to obviate any possibility of the fire extending. In parts the ground has been completely burned away for a depth of seven or eight feet, and we are informed that the total depth of the “tip” through which the smouldering fire has obtained a hold is not less than twelve or thirteen yards. The surface is still exceedingly hot in some places.

28. BICYCLE TRIP.—Mr. James Wood, of the Pickwick Bicycle Club, has accomplished a journey on his bicycle, from London to Bath and back in thirty-seven hours, having been in the saddle two whole days and one night, with short intervals for meals and one hour of sleep.

— THE DUKE OF EDINBURGH AT LIVERPOOL.—The visit of his Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh to Liverpool, for the combined purposes of attending the Liverpool Musical Festival, opening the new building of the Seamen's Orphanage, and laying the foundation-stone of the Art Gallery, took place this week. The Art Gallery is to be erected at a cost of 20,000*l.*, by Mr. Walker, the Mayor of Liverpool, for the benefit of the public. After laying the first stone of the building in the presence of a large concourse of spectators, His Royal Highness went to the Kensington parade-ground, to review the assembled Artillery and Rifle Volunteers, numbering 3,500, under Colonel J. C. Jones. He was thence conducted to the residence prepared for him, as guest of the Liverpool Corporation. This was in Newsham House, the mansion in Newsham Park belonging to the town, and commonly occupied by the Judges during the Assizes. The Duke was present the following day at the Musical Festival, and on the 30th he formally opened the Liverpool Seamen's Orphanage, which has been recently erected in Newsham Park, at a cost of 25,000*l.*

30. MURDER AND SUICIDE AT PLYMOUTH.—A murder and suicide under very distressing and peculiar circumstances occurred at Plymouth to-day, a man killing his wife and taking his own life whilst waiting in a solicitor's office for the rectification of a

deed of separation between them. The murderer and his victim were called Thomas, and the husband, a retired builder of Portsea, had settled at Plymouth with his wife but a few months since, and they were apparently very well to do; but they lived very unhappily together, the husband being jealous and addicted to drink. The wife was frequently beaten severely, and her face was covered with scars from her injuries. At length she determined to separate from her husband, but he objected to a deed being drawn up, principally on the ground of the division of the wife's property. Afterwards, however, he gave way, and they met at Messrs. Whiteford and Bennett's offices to sign the deed. They were together for some time, and then the husband left, and Mrs. Thomas told one of the clerks that she feared her husband would do her an injury. Little notice was taken of this, and the woman was left alone. The husband, having procured a razor, returned to the office stealthily, and at once cut his wife's throat and then his own. Within a few minutes both husband and wife died without saying a single word about the distressing affair. At the inquest held on the bodies the jury returned a verdict that "Amelia Thomas was murdered by her husband, who afterwards committed suicide whilst in an unsound state of mind."

— AN ARMLESS WOMAN.—A remarkable account is given by a local journal of an armless woman, of Jevington, Sussex, who has been recently married. She is a very good reader, writes very nicely and rapidly, is a member of the choir of the parish church, and has learnt to play upon a concertina, her feet, and especially the left foot, being the implements which take the place of hands. Amongst other things she manages to do fine needlework and fancy embroidery for sale. She is a skilful cook and dresses herself completely with very little aid. Most of her work is performed sitting on the ground.

OCTOBER.

2. EXPLOSION ON THE REGENT'S CANAL.—Shortly before five o'clock this morning a dreadful explosion, which alarmed nearly the whole of the metropolis, occurred on the Regent's Canal.

Five of the small boats known as "fly barges," about half the size and draught of a Thames lighter, started from the City Basin of the Regent's Canal Company in charge of a steam-tug. They were laden with general merchandise, consisting of nuts, coffee, sugar, rice, &c.; the middle boat, called "The Tilbury," being stored with four tons of blasting powder. Each boat was in charge of three men—a captain and two helpers—the small vessels being the property of the Grand Junction Canal Company. They passed the Zoological Gardens, and were near what is known as the North Lodge Bridge, when the barge containing the powder ex-

ploded with a tremendous noise, blowing the boat containing it to atoms. The bridge is situated at the end of the Avenue Road, and opposite to the Regent's Park Baptist College, and at its foot was the lodge from which it takes its name. The first effect of the explosion was to blow the bridge, which was of iron and brick, to pieces, the fragments falling into the canal and choking up the stream. The men who were on the boat were of course killed instantly, and their bodies blown on to the bank, where they were found by the officials of the park shortly afterwards. The men on the other barges were, strange to say, not dangerously injured, though three of them were taken to St. Mary's Hospital, Paddington. The lodge itself was a complete wreck.

The affair produced a perfect panic in the neighbourhood. For more than half a mile around, windows in the houses were smashed, Venetian blinds torn from the sashes and thrown into the rooms, curtains blackened, and furniture broken in many cases. Numbers of the inhabitants rushed into the streets in their night-dresses, screaming for help, and it was some time before quiet and order were restored. The fire brigade heard the noise, and several engines were shortly on the spot, but their aid was not required. Such was the force of the explosion that it put out the lamps at the Great Northern Railway Station, King's Cross. It also severely shook the St. Pancras Station of the Midland Railway, but did not do much damage to the structure. Its effects were very severely felt at the goods station at Camden Town, which had several of its windows broken, and a portion of the roof damaged. The explosion caused great commotion amongst the animals in the Zoological Gardens, and their howling added considerably to the excitement which the disaster occasioned in the neighbourhood. All the glass houses in the tropical department of the Botanical Gardens were more or less damaged.

Later reports give the particulars of immense destruction of property, and had the accident happened at almost any other point of the canal, the loss of life, which, as it is, was confined to the three boatmen, must have been frightful. At the bridge under which the explosion took place, the canal is carried between two steep banks, which to a very great extent deadened its force, and the immediate neighbourhood is not crowded with buildings. The lodge of Mr. Edwards, the park-keeper, was blown about his ears, but of six persons who were in the house, Mr. Edwards himself was alone hurt. North House, the mansion of Mr. Ochse, a German merchant, who lived exactly opposite the bridge, was dismantled. The adjacent row of buildings, called Lancaster Terrace, suffered most severely; but, in truth, all the property within a mile felt more or less the effects of the shock. The wave movement of the air, crossing Primrose Hill Park, fell with a peculiar force on the north-eastern angle, near the Chalk Farm Tavern. Although at least 1,000 yards distant, there was but one shop in Regent's Park Road that escaped. In St. John's Wood the da-

mage was very extensive; one of the chief sufferers being Mr. Alma Tadema, in Avenue Road. It is only quite recently that Mr. Tadema has become a permanent resident in this country, having received letters of denisation from the Queen, and the house intended as his home was filled with everything that an artist could desire, and fitted with all that the highest taste could suggest. Each room was decorated in a special style; the walls and staircases were lined with photographs, drawings, and pictures, and the idea which governed the whole had been carried out to the minutest detail. In all the rooms fronting to the park the ruin is complete. Mrs. Howard Paul, who also resides in the Avenue Road, had a very narrow escape:—She was awakened by a terrible concussion, which seemed, as she said, like an earthquake, and at the same moment the window came flying in with a crash. As a great deal of gas is burned in the house, she at once feared that a burner had not been turned off, and that an explosion had resulted. She knew that it would be dangerous to strike a light; so, getting down-stairs as best she could, she examined all the gas-burners. Finding these safe with the exception of one, which she plugged with soap, she returned upstairs, and, lighting a match, was able to examine her room. She found that the window had been entirely blown in, and that round where her head had lain the glass was driven in large and small pieces into the wall.

At the inquest held on the bodies of the victims before Dr. Hardwicke the minutest inquiry was made into the manner in which the barge was loaded, and the regulations under which such dangerous cargoes are allowed to be carried through the metropolis. It appeared that, in addition to the four tons of gunpowder, the "Tilbury" carried six barrels of petroleum, and there was no restriction against the lighting of fires in boats so laden. The verdict, which was not given till October 19, was to the effect that the three men were killed by the explosion, and that this was caused through the ignition of the vapour of the benzoline on board the "Tilbury" by the light or fire in the cabin of the barge. They added an opinion that the Canal Company were guilty of gross negligence in the matter, and that the existing laws are inadequate to secure the public safety.

A crowded meeting was held at the Eyre Arms, St. John's Wood, on October 5, under the presidency of Mr. Forsyth, M.P. for Marylebone, when resolutions were agreed to, appointing a committee to collect subscriptions for the poorer class of sufferers, and organising a deputation to the Government, with a view to the prevention of any such calamity in future. Various public bodies in the metropolis have subsequently formally expressed their opinion as to the necessity for more stringent legislation with respect to the storage and transport of gunpowder.

7. THE DUKE OF EDINBURGH AT DEVONPORT.—The Duke of Edinburgh laid to-day the foundation-stone of a new wing of the Royal British Female Orphan Asylum at Devonport. The ceremony took

place at noon, His Royal Highness driving to the spot in the carriage of Sir J. St. Aubyn, M.P., in company with the Port Admiral, the Hon. Sir Henry Keppel. In the procession which preceded the Duke, rode Sir Massey Lopes, Civil Lord of the Admiralty, Lord Eliot, Capt. the Hon. Charles Eliot, Sir John Duckworth, Lord Blachford, Sir Frederick Martin Williams, M.P., and Mr. Carpenter Garnier, M.P.

10. CREMATION.—Much has been said lately in favour of the advantages of disposing of our dead by cremation rather than by our present system of burial, but we still adhere in England to the latter. On the Continent cremation has in some few instances been practised, and we copy from a letter of the Berlin correspondent of the *Times* an account of the funeral obsequies of a well-known English lady, which will hardly influence us in favour of the new system. He says:—"The body of Lady Dilke, who died five weeks ago in London, was burnt on October 10 at Dresden. The ceremony was performed in the furnace recently invented for burial purposes by Herr Siemens, and the relatives of the deceased lady permitting strangers to be present, a large number of scientific men attended the experiment. When the company had complied with Herr Siemens's request to offer up a mental prayer, the coffin was placed in the chamber of the furnace; six minutes later the coffin burst; five minutes more and the flesh began to melt away; ten minutes more and the skeleton was laid bare; another ten minutes and the bones began to crumble. Seventy-five minutes after the introduction of the coffin into the furnace all that remained of Lady Dilke and the coffin were six pounds of dust, placed in an urn. The brother-in-law of the deceased was present."

— GREAT FIRES are reported from different parts of Scotland. At Kinnaird Castle, Forfarshire, the seat of the Earl of Southesk, the kitchen, scullery and coachhouse were entirely destroyed. A second fire has taken place at Errol Park, about twelve miles from Dundee, recently purchased by Mr. Francis Mollison, a retired merchant. The house had been undergoing renovation for the last nine months, which, according to plans prepared, would cost about 5,000*l*. The renovation was very nearly completed, and the house would soon have been occupied. The fire was discovered about eleven o'clock on the night of October 10, but owing to the want of appliances and the scarcity of water, the whole pile, in the course of five or six hours, was reduced to a ruin. The Dundee fire brigade were sent for, but by the time they were able to reach the spot the building was completely gutted. The fire seems to have broken out in the roof, but its origin is a mystery. The total loss is estimated at about 9,000*l*. The third fire took place in the Established East Church, one of the largest and finest edifices in Aberdeen. The fire appeared to have first commenced in the roof, close to one of the sunlights. The molten lead ran down the slates and ignited the roof in every part, and within half an hour the roof fell in with a crash, and the interior of the building became

one mass of flame. The heat was so intense that the steeple connecting the two churches caught fire, and in twenty minutes fell in with a crash. It contained a fine peal of bells, which was totally destroyed.

12. A STOCK EXCHANGE FRACAS.—At the Mansion House Mr. William Abbott, a member of the Stock Exchange, appeared before the Lord Mayor, charged with assaulting Mr. Henry Labouchere, formerly M.P. for Middlesex. There was a cross summons against Mr. Labouchere, in which Mr. Abbott charged him with using abusive and threatening language, calculated to provoke a breach of the peace.

Mr. Labouchere had written two or three articles in the *World* newspaper on the subject of certain speculations in the City. Mr. Abbott, meeting him subsequently in the street, attacked him on the subject, and after some recriminations, struck him with a stick, and threatened to horsewhip him. The Lord Mayor said he had nothing to do with the disputes between the parties, but he could not allow these disturbances in the public streets. A newspaper had a right to criticise public proceedings, and the courts of law were open to any one who felt himself aggrieved. In this case he felt it his duty to order Mr. Abbott to enter into his own recognisances in 500*l.* to keep the peace towards Mr. Labouchere for six months.

— NEW RAILWAY TO PLYMOUTH.—An important piece of railway in the west of England has been opened for traffic. Hitherto Plymouth has been connected with Exeter, Bristol, and London by one line of railway only—namely, the broad gauge, running up along the south coast by Teignmouth and Dawlish. This line has often been damaged through the inroads of the sea during the prevalence of a south-west gale, and the advocates of the narrow gauge have never failed to point out that in case of war, and an enemy obtaining command of the Channel, this line of railway could at once be rendered useless, and Plymouth would thus be cut off from the other arsenals of the kingdom. The new link which has been supplied obviates this danger, by giving Plymouth a narrow gauge communication with Exeter and London, by way of Tavistock, Lidford, and Okehampton, right across Dartmoor. The line has been cut by the Devon and Cornwall Railway Company, and will be worked by the London and South-Western Company.

14. A FATAL COLLISION has taken place in the Channel, by which eleven lives have been lost. The disaster took place about seven o'clock in the evening, when the iron-built ship "*Candahar*," 1,418 tons, came into collision with the "*Kingsbridge*," also an iron vessel, 1,496 tons. The "*Kingsbridge*" sank in three minutes, carrying down with her the master, his wife, and daughter (aged nineteen), and eight of the crew; the remainder of the crew, twenty in number, managed to get on board the "*Candahar*." Owing to this vessel having a water-tight fore compartment she

was prevented from sinking, and managed to work into Falmouth, with loss of jibboom and bows stove in. The estimated value of the "Kingsbridge" and general cargo is 30,000*l*.

— THE VEGETARIAN SOCIETY.—The annual soirée of this society was held at Manchester in the Nonconformist Memorial Hall, Mr. W. Hoyle, Tottington, in the chair. The Rev. J. Clarke (the hon. secretary), in presenting the annual report, said theirs was a small but growing society. Last year 250*l*. was received in subscriptions, as compared with 170*l*. in the previous year. He might add that they had resolved to admit into association with them persons who, while fully sympathising and agreeing with vegetarianism, were not, from special circumstances, in a position to carry out the practice consistently. The chairman said he became a vegetarian twenty-six years ago. He was then a weaver in a cotton mill; but subsequently he went to another sphere of labour, which was very hard and hot, and without meat he was at all times able to do his work quite as well, and frequently better, than those who did not abstain from meat. He thoroughly believed in the system, and he had a firm opinion that as the public mind became more enlightened, the accession to their numbers, great as it had been, would be very much greater still.

15. BIRTH OF A PRINCE.—Her Royal and Imperial Highness the Duchess of Edinburgh was safely delivered of a son at Buckingham Palace at 2.45 this morning. Dr. Arthur Farre and Dr. Wilson Fox were in attendance. The Empress of Russia, who was en route from St. Petersburg to England, arrived at Buckingham Palace later in the day. Her Imperial Majesty's journey was hastened in consequence of a telegram announcing the sudden indisposition of the Duchess being received by the Empress upon her arrival at Berlin on Tuesday, on receipt of which she left immediately for Calais, where Colonel the Hon. Henry Byng, Groom in Waiting to the Queen, awaited the arrival of her Imperial Majesty, who was accompanied by the Czarewitch. The Empress crossed the Channel in the Russian yacht "Standard" to Dover, where, by express command, no official reception was given; but her Imperial Majesty proceeded immediately by special train to London.

17. THE DOUBLE SCULLERS' RACE between the representatives of the Thames and Tyne, for 200*l*. a side, was rowed on Thursday from Putney to Mortlake, and resulted in an unequivocal victory for the North-countrymen. W. Lumsden, of Blyth, and R. W. Boyd, of Newcastle, had been selected to row for the Tyne; and T. G. Green, of Hammersmith, and H. Thomas, of Brentford, were chosen as the representatives of the Thames.

17. HOSPITAL SATURDAY.—A meeting, consisting of about 20,000 persons, was held in Hyde Park on Saturday, October 10, in favour of the Hospital Saturday movement. Processions of trade societies, temperance societies, and friendly societies, marched to the park with flags and bands. The chair was

taken by Archbishop Manning, who was loudly cheered, and among the speakers were Lord Brabazon, Mr. Gordon, M.P., Mr. Ritchie, M.P., and Captain Mercier. The collections of money in aid of the London hospitals and infirmaries and medical charities, simultaneously conducted on the following Saturday, among the working classes and others throughout London, were an occasion of general interest. One novel feature of the proceedings was the appearance of ladies sitting at small tables in the public streets, each with her money-box, to receive the gifts of the passers-by. One lady took up her station on the pavement close to the statue of Mr. Peabody, behind the Royal Exchange; another, who bears a noble title, was in Capel Court. They were greatly assisted by the presence and aid of the police, which sometimes became necessary owing to the great crowds that were attracted to the spot. The money given was mostly in silver and coppers, the latter predominating, and the donors included persons of all classes, from gentlemen who contributed guineas down to a beggar in rags, who offered a penny, saying it was the last he had in the world. The other tables were not so productive, the highest amount collected by one person being about 10*l*. In the course of the following week about 4,000*l*. had been received, but this sum did not represent all the boxes and collecting sheets employed.

PRESENTATION TO THE MAYOR OF EXETER.—The municipal decoration of a chain and badge has been formally presented to the Mayor and Corporation of Exeter by a deputation from the Royal Archæological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland. The Institute held its annual meeting for 1873 at Exeter. It was decided by the members that a suitable acknowledgment should be made of the handsome entertainment which was then provided for them by the Mayor, Mr. C. J. Follett, who has since been re-elected, and by the municipality generally. It was found that the Exeter Corporation possessed no civic badge of office since their historical one was sacrificed, in old days, to the Royalist cause. A chain and badge were therefore selected as the most appropriate form of compliment. This was manufactured from the design of Mr. W. Burges, the well-known architect, by Mr. W. Page, goldsmith, of Great Portland Street. It is in the style of the thirteenth century. The chain, which weighs 22 oz., consists of sixteen links, the principal ones representing castles, which are the city insignia. The badge represents, in enamel, the city arms. The presentation was made by the Earl of Devon, who was president of last year's meeting.

20. GALES AND LOSS OF LIFE.—During the night of October 20, one of the most severe and destructive gales with which we have been visited for some time past raged over London and the north-eastern and north-western portions of the country, resulting in loss of life and great destruction of shipping and other property. The most disastrous effect of the gale was the wreck of

the "Chusan," Captain Johnstone, off Ardlrossan, on the west coast of Scotland, in sight of hundreds of spectators. The "Chusan" was bound for Shanghai from Glasgow, with coals, and sailed from the Tail of the Bank on October 17, but put back from Waterford for repairs. She had a crew of fifty-two. When she struck, the fore part of the vessel, with a number of the crew on board, floated into the old harbour, and the stern half sank, a part of the bridge being left above water. The tug went to the assistance of the crew, who were clinging to the rigging, and rescued nine. There was a very distressing scene witnessed in connection with the attempt to save Captain Johnstone and his wife and wife's sister. The three were lashed to a line thrown from the tug, but it was found impossible to haul them all on board, and Captain Johnstone cut himself free. The two ladies were then hauled on board, but no effort that could be put forth could enable them to reach the captain, who was swept out of reach and drowned. The captain's child was also rescued. In all it is believed that seventeen persons lost their lives.—Another fatal shipwreck occurred on the coast of the Hebrides. The vessel was the iron ship "Maju," of London, Captain John Smith, bound from Dundee for Rangoon, and it is feared that the whole of her crew, twenty-four in number, have perished.

The steamship "Mary," of and from Glasgow to Trinidad, foundered in the Bay of Biscay. She encountered a heavy gale for some days, and on the afternoon of October 21 parted amidships and sank. The captain and five of the crew got into one boat, five others into another, and the remainder of the crew of twenty had to trust to spars which came away from the sinking ship. The men in the boats were tossed about, and were soon separated. Some of the crew succeeded in making rafts, which supported them till rescued by a passing vessel. The storm in London, and along the whole east coast of England, was terrific. The gale rose again on the 24th, but not with equally destructive violence.

22. SIR GARNET WOLSELEY.—At a special meeting of the Court of Common Council, held at Guildhall on October 22, the honorary freedom of the City of London, with a sword of the value of 100 guineas, was presented to Major-General Sir Garnet Wolseley, K.C.B., "in recognition of his gallant services in the British army, and especially in reference to the distinguished ability and gallantry displayed by him in his command of the expedition to the Gold Coast, by which he obtained results conducive to peace, commerce, and civilization on the continent of Africa."

26. ENGLISH CHURCH IN ROME.—The first English Protestant church ever erected within the walls of Papal Rome was this day opened, without any ceremonial beyond the simple English Morning Service read by the incumbent, the Rev. Fairfax Nursey, B.A., followed by a sermon from the same gentleman. The former Eng-

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lish church, standing outside the Porta del Popolo, still retains its congregation, the new church having been built by a party disapproving of the advanced ritual there practised; and Dr. Gason, the well-known physician, who has been long resident at Rome, undertook the almost exclusive management of the business. The church, which is a handsome edifice, built of *pietra serena* on the old Basilican plan, but without aisles, stands in the Piazza San Silvestro, a little to the east of the middle of the Corso. It is dedicated to the Trinity. The site, including the requisite legal expenses of transfer, &c., cost 58,000 francs, and the building about 150,000 francs.

ELEVEN LIVES LOST AT A FIRE.—By the destruction of a large cotton mill at Over, in Cheshire, eleven lives have been lost, and property damaged to the extent of over 60,000%. The mill, one of the finest in the county, was the property of Messrs. Haigh and Son, and had only been recently constructed, with all the latest improvements and machinery. The main building was several hundred feet in length, ninety feet high, and contained six floors, all of which were occupied by machinery. The outbreak of the fire was very sudden, and the spread of the flames was extremely rapid, for in a very few minutes after the alarm was given the work-people were rushing about the various floors in a state of great consternation. Those employed in the lower part of the mill readily effected their escape, and at once took steps for the suppression of the fire and the rescue of their fellow-workers. The flames swept from floor to floor, and the stairs were speedily rendered impassable, so that those who had not got out in the first rush from the building had their escape cut off, and they appeared on the roof and at the upper windows, making heart-rending appeals to those below to save them. Messages were sent to Middlewich and Tarparley for the fire-engines, but notwithstanding the utmost despatch, the work of destruction was all but complete before they arrived. A frantic woman who, with her two children, was in the upper part of the mill, threw the children one after the other into a reservoir, ninety feet below. One of the little ones was recovered almost unhurt, but the other was killed. The woman then leapt out herself, but, falling on the side of the tank, her head was dashed to pieces. In a marvellously brief space of time the roof of the mill fell in, and then all hope of saving those still in the mill was gone. When the fire had so far burnt itself out as to admit of a search being made, four bodies were found huddled together in one of the towers of the mill, and five others were discovered in various parts of the ruins. The fire was caused by the friction of some part of the machinery in a spinning-room on the fourth-floor. The man in charge of one of the spinning-mules observed a spark struck from a fly-wheel, and in an instant loose particles of cotton became ignited, and communicated flame to the partly spun thread and the bobbins on the mule. The spinner and his assistant made a brave effort to extinguish the fire with

their hands, but failed in that, and before they could procure some water the fire had got so strong a hold that the smoke drove them from the room.

THE VICTORIA CROSS.—The following official notification appears in the *Gazette*:—"War Office, October 26.—The Queen has been graciously pleased to signify her intention to confer the decoration of the Victoria Cross on the undermentioned officer, whose claim to the same has been submitted for her Majesty's approval, for an act of bravery which he performed during the late Ashantee War, as recorded against his name. Major Reginald William Sartorius, C.M.G., 6th Bengal Cavalry, for having during the attack on Abogoo, on January 17 last, removed from under a heavy fire Sergeant-Major Braimah Doctor, a Houssa non-commissioned officer, who was mortally wounded, and placed him under cover." This gallant officer was attached to the irregular Native African force under the command of Captain Sir J. H. Glover, R.N., which marched from the River Volta, through Akim and East Assin, to invade the kingdom of Ashantee simultaneously with Sir Garnet Wolseley's direct advance from Cape Coast Castle, by way of Prahsu, the Adansi Hills and Amoafu, to the city of Coomassie. Captain Sartorius was sent on by Captain Glover to Coomassie, attended only by ten or twelve natives, and rode, thus accompanied, through the heart of the enemy's country, till he reached the General's head-quarters at Fomannah.

28. THE ALDERSHOT MURDER.—Thomas Smith, the private in the 10th Hussars who had been committed for the murder of Captain Bird, was tried at the Central Criminal Court, before Mr. Justice Lush, found guilty, and condemned to death.

31. FATAL FALL IN A CHURCH.—The vicar of Constantine, West Cornwall, the Rev. R. Rickard, has lost his life by a singular accident. His church is being restored, and the vicar went on the roof to give directions to the workmen. While there a portion of the roof gave way, and he was precipitated through the ceiling on to the pews. He descended in a perfectly upright position, and no bones were broken, but the internal injuries were so serious that surgeons were summoned from Plymouth, and after lingering for two days the unfortunate gentleman expired.

THE NEWMARKET MEETINGS have concentrated the principal sporting interest for this month. On October 13, the Cesarewitch day, the weather was glorious, and the attendance very large. The Cesarewitch Stakes were won by Lord Ailesbury's *Aventurière*. The race for the Middle Park plate, on the following day, was as follows:—

Mr. T. Brown's <i>Plebeian</i> , by Joskin—Queen Elizabeth, 8st 6lbs. (Mordan)	1
Lord Dupplin's <i>Per Se</i> , by Hermit—Perseverance, 8st. 3lbs. (Cannon)	2
Prince Batthyany's <i>Galopin</i> , by Vedette—Flying Duchess, 8st. 13lbs. (Morris)	3
Mr. Launde's <i>Holy Friar</i> , by Hermit—Thursday, 8st 9lbs (J. Osborne)	4

At the Newmarket Houghton Meeting at the end of the

month, the principal event was the race for the Cambridgeshire Stakes, which was won by M. P. Aumont's *Peut-être*.

Among the items of sporting intelligence, the journals mention with regret the death of the well-known cricketer, John Lillywhite. The *Illustrated News* says of him :—"Inheriting a love of cricket from his father, William Lillywhite, he first had a professional engagement in 1842, when he was only fourteen years old. Eight years later he made his first appearance at Lord's in an important match, and in 1852 he was chosen to play for England against Kent. From that time until 1870 he was one of the strongest of the Sussex county team, being a powerful batsman, a good bowler, and a brilliant field, his favourite place being cover-point. Thoroughly straightforward in all his dealings, he earned the respect of all who knew him, and leaves behind him many friends."

THE CONGRESSES this month have been the Social Science Congress, which was held at Glasgow, under the presidency of the Earl of Rosebery, during the first week in October; and the Church Congress, which took place at Brighton the following week. At the first of these meetings an interesting address was delivered by Dr. Lyon Playfair, M.P., as President of the Health Department. Dr. Playfair began by drawing attention to the death-rate of the country. He showed that in London the average rate was only 21·4 per 1,000; in the principal towns, 26·9; in small towns, 20·2; and in the rural districts, 16·2. Adverting next to the question of preventible deaths, he contended that the number was far in excess of what it ought to be, and that until a system of disease registrations, as well as death registrations, was established, public health could not be administered with full intelligence. Considering the causes which govern life and death so far as disease was preventible by agencies over which man had control, the right hon. gentleman said that the laws of health, like other laws of nature, were relentless in their severity. Intelligent submission to them produced health and longevity, while the slightest infraction of them was mercilessly punished with disease and shortness of days. All that they need aim to secure was purity or cleanliness in the house, the air, and the water, and genuineness in the food and clothes. No epidemic could resist clean houses, clean air, and clean water. In short, "Wash and be clean" is the simple golden rule of Dr. Playfair. Papers read and discussed in other departments related to educational endowments, examinations in Scotch schools, various questions of law, police supervision, the responsibility of insane criminals, workmen's dwellings, waste lands, and other topics. Sir George Campbell delivered his presidential address in the Section for Economy and Trade. He remarked on the tendency of coolie and Chinese labour to restrain the advance of wages in Western countries, and admitted the right of self-governing colonies to hold their own economical opinions. There were several interest-

ing papers read in the Repression of Crime section, Miss Mary Carpenter describing the industrial schools of India, and Mr. Taylor advocating more stringent discipline for wife-beaters. One of the most interesting discussions was that which took place upon the problems surrounding the employment of the surplus female population, in which Mrs. Crawshay, Mrs. E. M. King, Mrs. Pattison, Miss Rose Adams, and other ladies took part.

The Church Congress was an exceedingly interesting one. A lively debate on the adaptation of the fabrics and services of the Church to the wants of the times was opened by Mr. Beresford-Hope, M.P., and Mr. George Street, the architect. Mr. Street's paper was a plea for "more ornament, more ritual, and more stateliness," and its recommendations provoked frequent displays of divided opinion. An interesting address was read by Canon Westcott on modern Scepticism, followed by an able speech by Professor Pritchard; and a discussion afterwards took place on the spiritual life, its helps and hindrances, and the religious bearings of the sanitary questions.

NOVEMBER.

1. END OF ROGER TICHBORNE.—The New York papers contain a narrative of the last days of the true Roger Tichborne, purporting to be given by an old English sailor, named George Claridge. Claridge said, that in the year 1854 or 1855 he was on the island of Rotumah, when a schooner, named the "Annie," called there, having on board two men who had been picked up in a boat in a famished condition. One of these was an English gentleman, who was very ill, and who, according to the master of the schooner, a Frenchman, spoke French as well as himself. Claridge engaged to go in the schooner to take care of the sick gentleman, and to help to get a cargo. Five days after leaving Rotumah they reached Sydney Island, where they found no inhabitants and plenty of *ûche de mer*. Claridge, with some natives of Rotumah, went ashore to pursue the fishery, and the sick gentleman, at his own request, was also put on shore, with everything the vessel afforded to add to his comfort, whilst the schooner sailed away. Some time after landing on the island the sick gentleman called Claridge to him, and told him he was near his end, and requested him to procure a quill from one of the wild birds that frequented the island, to make a pen of. He had a scrap of paper in which had been wrapped a bit of cheese, from the schooner, and on this, with blood from a bird, he wrote something. This paper he gave to Claridge, and told him to keep it sacred, and the first ship that came to have it copied, to keep the original himself, but by all means to

make it public whenever he got to a civilized land. He then informed Claridge that his name was Roger Tichborne. After this the sick man was frequently delirious until he died, about the eighteenth day after landing. In his lucid moments he stated that he sailed from Rio in a ship deeply loaded, that she went down in a squall, and that himself and seven others got into a boat, which drifted about until all perished except himself and one other person, and that they were forty days in the boat before being picked up. He said that if he could get to Hongkong he should find plenty of friends and money. In his delirium he frequently spoke of his father, with whom he appeared to have quarrelled, and he often fancied himself talking to his mother, whom he addressed in French. Claridge kept the paper as directed, and showed it to the captain of the ship, who eventually took him from the island. It met with no attention. After getting to Wellington Island a New Bradford boy, named Mandell, on board the whaling ship "Miles Standish," copied a part of the writing (some of it being in French), but Claridge does not know what disposition he made of it. The original paper, written by Sir Roger Tichborne, is now in the possession of Claridge. It is a soiled and dilapidated scrap, and the inscription it bears in the blood of a bird has almost completely faded out. The signature, however, can still be traced. Such is the story given. Claridge is described as being a very truthful, and, at the same time, very ignorant man, who could not have invented it.

3. ROYAL VISIT TO BIRMINGHAM.—The Prince and Princess of Wales have met with a most enthusiastic reception at Birmingham. Their Royal Highnesses drove over from Packington Hall, near Hampton, where they were on a visit to Lord and Lady Aylesford, and entered the city by way of the Coventry Road, which was during the greater part of the journey lined with vehicles containing people from the neighbouring villages as well as from Birmingham itself. The streets were kept by 900 police, 700 or 800 volunteers, and no less than 5,000 Good Templars, marshalled by a Grand-Master on horseback, their fantastic badges making a gay fringe to the crowd. The principal streets of the town, about eight miles in length, were traversed by their Royal Highnesses, preceded by a military escort; and so profuse were the decorations, that New Street is described as having presented the appearance of an arcade overhung with choice combinations of colour. The procession then went through crowds of people. The windows of the houses, the garden walls, and the garden trees also, in many cases, were crammed and loaded with people, and as for the street itself, men and women were packed away thickly behind the barriers along the whole route. There was always a good deal of cheering, but (says the *Times* reporter) there was certainly nothing like the noise such a crowd could have made had it done its best. A very great many hats were, too, never lifted; but we believe that these deficiencies were not in the least due to any Radical

aversion to Princes, but were merely because a great many thousand persons, who had never in their lives seen the Prince and Princess before, let the chance of cheering and waving their hats slip, while they staid hard with their eyes, and mouths, too, as wide open as possible, at the great personages passing before them.

It was twenty minutes to one before the Town Hall was reached, and on arrival the Royal party alighted and were received by an assemblage composed of the magistrates, members of the Town Council, and invited guests. The hall was gorgeously decorated, and a choir of 600 voices, assisted by the organ, gave the National Anthem as the Prince and Princess slowly walked up the aisle. The Recorder read an address, which was suitably answered by the Prince, and the Mayor then presented to their Royal Highnesses a number of gentlemen. Amongst them were Mr. Newdegate, M.P., Mr. George Dixon, M.P., Mr. Muntz, M.P., and Mr. Bromley Davenport, M.P. This concluded the proceedings in the Town Hall, and, amid renewed cheers, the Princess, as before, escorted by Mr. Chamberlain, and the Prince, with the Mayoress on his arm, walked down the crimson-carpeted hall, and re-entering the carriages, drove to the rooms of the Royal Society of Artists, where they were entertained at luncheon by the Mayor. This gentleman, Mr. Chamberlain, whose strongly democratic principles are well known, distinguished himself by the dignified courtesy with which he performed his duties as host on the occasion. In his speech on proposing Her Majesty's health, he alluded to the fact that "in England the Monarch is acknowledged to be above all parties, while belonging to none, and the Throne is recognised and respected as the symbol of all constituted authority and settled government." In proposing the toast of the "Prince and Princess of Wales," he said:—"This town has been long distinguished, not without cause, for the independence of its citizens, and the freedom and outspokenness in which all opinions are discussed, and this fact gives value to the welcome which has been offered, and stamps the sincerity of the wishes which are everywhere expressed for the continued health of their Royal Highnesses." After lunch the Royal party drove through the crowded streets to see some of the sights of Birmingham—Messrs. Elkington's manufactory, Messrs. Gillott's steel-pen factory, and Messrs. Ralph Heaton and Sons' coining factory, returning thence to dinner at Packington Hall. In the evening the town was illuminated.

— **EXPLOSION IN HOUNSLOW POWDER MILLS.**—Shortly before one o'clock on the same afternoon a frightful explosion took place at the gunpowder works of Messrs. Curtis and Harvey, commonly called Hounslow Powder Mills. It appears that during the time some workmen were at work in the composition or mixing-house (a brick-built building thirty feet square, covered with slates and lined with wood), in which were about twelve charges, the composition suddenly took fire and exploded with a slight rumbling or

rather cracking noise, when a large cloud of white smoke was seen to issue forth from the several doorways. The alarm bell was immediately rung and the fire-engines despatched with all speed to the building. By the use of hydrants the fire was got under, and a search at once made for the men known to work in the building, the result being that the dead and charred bodies of four of the number were brought out and conveyed to the dead-house to await a coroner's inquiry. The two other men, who were burnt considerably, were, after being attended by the medical men, conveyed to their homes. The composition house is situated near the middle of the works, on the same spot as the one that was destroyed about two years ago by the blowing up of a boat-load of powder. The coroner's jury returned a verdict to the effect that the four men had been killed by the explosion of gunpowder while under manufacture, but how the explosion was caused there was no evidence to show.

— THE BENGAL FAMINE FUND.—A meeting of the committee for the purpose of "winding-up" the Bengal Famine Fund was held at the Mansion House to-day. The Lord Mayor presided, and observed that this would be the last meeting of the committee, who had held twenty-three meetings, and who had collected 129,163*l.* for the purposes of the famine. Of this sum, 120,000*l.* had been sent to India, and when all expenses were paid, 3,650*l.* remained, which it was proposed also to transmit to India. A vote of thanks was proposed to the Lord Mayor; and Mr. Vine, the secretary, who has performed the duties of his office with marked ability, had his services recognised in the presentation by the committee of a piece of plate valued at 100 guineas.

4. HALLOWE'EN, the observance of which is fast falling into neglect in many districts of Scotland, especially in the Lowlands, has been celebrated on a great scale at Balmoral Castle. Preparations had been made days beforehand, and the turn-out included farmers and others for miles around. When darkness set in the celebration began. Her Majesty and the Princess Beatrice, each bearing a large torch, drove out in an open phaeton. A procession formed of the tenants and servants on the estates followed, all carrying huge lighted torches. They walked through the grounds and round the Castle; and the scene, as the procession moved onwards, was very weird and striking. Having arrived in front of the Castle, an immense bonfire, composed of old boxes, packing-cases, and other materials kept during the year for the occasion, was set fire to. When the flames were at their brightest a figure dressed as a hobgoblin appeared on the scene, drawing a car surrounded by a number of fairies carrying long spears, the car containing the effigy of a witch. A circle having been formed by the torch-bearers, the presiding elf tossed the figure of the witch into the fire, where it was speedily consumed. This cremation over, reels were begun, and were danced with great vigour to the stirring strains of Willie Ross, Her Majesty's piper. The Queen, Princess

Beatrice, and the ladies and gentlemen of the household, remained, spectators of the show. It was intended to have closed the evening's festivities with a dance in the iron ball-room, but owing, it is said, to some of the crowd having behaved in too noisy a manner at the fire, this intention was abandoned, and the proceedings were wound up in the open air. The bonfire burned till a late hour in the night.

9. **LORD MAYOR'S DAY.**—The procession of the Lord Mayor of London to Westminster was, as usual, witnessed by an enormous number of people, who crowded the streets through which the show passed. The weather was beautifully fine. Little had been done for the special decoration of houses on the route, but the growing custom of draping balconies and covering window-sills with cloth of some bright hue—most commonly crimson—gave a cheerful aspect to otherwise sombre and common-place buildings. Basinghall Street and its vicinity were plentifully adorned with statues, heraldic blazonry, and other decorations. Around Temple Bar an animated crowd—a crowd with an object—took up an early position. Bets were offered that the Lord Mayor's carriage was too bulky to pass under the arch. There was a general impression, too, that next Lord Mayor's day there will be no Temple Bar to pass under. A melancholy interest was consequently extended to the structure. But the coach passed through safely; the coachman's head was only a short remove from the roof, it is true, but he was not a tall man, and he emerged from the danger smiling a grateful appreciation of the "bravos" shouted by a relieved public. A banquet, given by the Lord Mayor and Sheriffs, took place in the evening in the Guildhall.

10. **A REMARKABLE BALLOON ASCENT** was made to-day from the Crystal Palace, by Capt. Burnaby, of the Royal Horse Guards, and Lord Manners, of the Grenadier Guards, to try a machine Capt. Burnaby has invented for ascertaining the course of the wind when above the clouds, and when the earth is concealed. On these occasions, although the balloon may be sailing at the rate of forty miles an hour, yet from the clouds, both above and below, being wafted at precisely the same rate as the balloon, the latter appears to be anchored in space, and utterly devoid of motion. The compass marks the four quarters as faithfully as ever, but for all the travellers themselves can discover they are absolutely stationary. To obviate this inconvenience, which is sometimes also very hazardous, as the aeronauts, on emerging through the clouds, may find that their globe has changed its track, and that they are over the sea when least expected, Capt. Burnaby brings the attraction of the earth to bear on a machine which should, under such circumstances, enable the aeronauts to map out their course. The invention consists of two small silk parachutes, attached to each other by a winding reel of cord of some thirty yards in length. On one of these parachutes being dropped over the side of the car

it instantly commences its downward course, but slowly, on account of the resistance of the atmosphere. In another second or so the second parachute is detached, and then the travellers, by means of their compass, can obtain the true line of their course, by marking on their charts the reverse parts to those on which the two parachutes are descending. The invention is very simple in its character, and worked admirably. Some interesting topographic observations were also taken from the car, and the travellers finally descended about half a mile from the German ocean, in Essex.

15. FIRE AT HOWICK HALL.—An alarming fire broke out this morning at Howick Hall, Northumberland, the residence of Earl Grey. For a few days the smell of fire had been perceived, a strict examination was made, but no visible traces were found. At length, however, it burst forth in the room of the Hon. A. Grey, son of the late General Grey. Sir Frederick Grey, who was at the time residing with his brother, rushed from his bed, and was the first to enter the flaming room. It was difficult to reach the window amidst the flames and smoke, but it was quickly smashed by a chair being dashed through it. There are pipes laid throughout the entire building, through which water is raised by an engine on the ground-floor. These were quickly called into requisition, and the flames were subdued without reaching the more stately rooms of the hall; but considerable damage has been done by the flames, and more by the free use of the water, projected through the pipes in rapid and copious streams. The clothes belonging to Mr. Grey were all burned, and his absence from home was very probably the means of saving his life, as he might have been suffocated in his bed. In the large front room on the ground floor, wood only is used for fuel, and it is supposed that the fire, which had been smouldering for a few days, had been caused by sparks flying up the flue. The hall is insured.

— EPPING FOREST.—The important suit instituted by the Corporation of the City of London to protect the rights of common against the lords of the manor in Epping Forest was to-day decided by the Master of the Rolls in favour of the plaintiffs, after twenty-two days' hearing. The immediate question involved was the validity of the numerous inclosures, amounting to nearly 3,000 acres, made in the forest during the twenty years previous to the filing of the bill in May, 1871. The London Commissioners of Sewers sued as owners of land at Little Ilford, just within the boundaries of the forest, which they acquired some years ago as a burying ground; but it was really not only on behalf of all owners and occupiers of land within the forest, but also of the public generally, who are all interested in the preservation of this and other open commons in the neighbourhood of London, that the battle was fought. The news of the victory was received with great rejoicing in London, and at an enthusiastic meeting held soon afterwards, under the presidency of Sir William Harcourt, a vote was passed "to express public gratitude to the Corporation of

the City of London for its efforts to preserve the Forest to the people for ever."

17. THE MIDLAND RAILWAY.—An important resolution was passed at a meeting of this railway company which, if generally adopted on other lines as well, will effect a complete revolution in the system of railway *classes*. This was the abolition of second class, and the considerable reduction of first class fares. This change, which had been under discussion for some time, was strongly opposed by a minority of the shareholders, and also by the companies of the other railways passing through the same districts, whose receipts will, it is feared, be considerably reduced by this bold experiment on the part of the Midland. Several of the competing railways have resolved to meet the movement by a large reduction in their own fares, without altering the present arrangement of classes.

19. BOAT ACCIDENT ON THE CLYDE.—A twelve-oared cutter, belonging to H.M.S. "Aurora," was run down to-day on the Clyde by the Dublin steamer "Duke of Leinster," and all on board were thrown into the water. Before assistance could be rendered, seventeen of their number were drowned. It appears that shortly after six o'clock the boat, which belonged to the "Aurora," the guardship stationed at the tail of the Bank, put off from Prince's Pier, and was pulled out in the direction of the war-ship, anchored in the Channel about a mile off. When about half the distance had been accomplished the Dublin steamer "Duke of Leinster" was seen bearing down upon her. The men in the cutter hoisted a lamp, which was observed by the watch on board the steamer, and the orders "Stop her!" and "Full speed astern!" were successively given. These orders seemed to be instantly obeyed, but with the speed on at the time it was impossible to bring the vessel to a stand. A lamentable collision ensued, the small boat being completely cut in two, and seventeen men were drowned. The fore part of the boat drifted to one side of the steamer, and the stern portion to the other. A boat was at once manned and put off to the rescue, while two boats were lowered in all haste from the steamer. By these means ten men were picked up, all of them greatly exhausted, some of them having been more or less seriously injured by the collision. Twenty-seven men and boys were known to have been on board the cutter.

20. A TERRIBLE COLLIERY EXPLOSION took place this morning at the Rawmarsh Colliery, near Rotherham, by which twenty-three lives were lost and four persons injured. The "fire trier" had gone round the works early in the morning, and pronounced them safe. Half an hour afterwards the explosion occurred, and nearly all the men and boys then in the working were killed instantaneously. Only four of the whole number escaped alive, and two of these four were badly hurt. Fourteen widows and forty-four orphans are left. The cause of the disaster is not positively known, but it is surmised that, owing to a fall of the roof, a

quantity of gas escaped, and, the work being carried on with naked lights, the gas quickly ignited.

23. ROYAL CHRISTENING.—The christening of the infant son of the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh took place at Buckingham Palace to-day, in the presence of the Queen, the Empress of Russia, the Prince and Princess of Wales, and other members of the Royal family. The sponsors for the infant Prince were:—Her Majesty the Queen; the Emperor of Russia (represented by the Grand Duke the Czarewitch); the Emperor of Germany (represented by the Duke of Connaught); the Prince of Wales; the Crown Princess of Germany (represented by the Princess Christian); and the Reigning Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha (represented by Prince Christian). The names of the infant, which were pronounced by the Queen as godmother, are “Alfred Alexander William Ernest Albert.” The little Prince was dressed in a mantle, gown, and cap of Honiton lace, being the same dress in which all the Queen’s children and those of the Prince and Princess of Wales were christened.

The Empress of Russia, accompanied by the Czarewitch and the Grand Duke Alexis, left London the following day, on their journey to the south of France. The Prince and Princess of Wales, Prince Arthur, the Duke of Cambridge, and a numerous suite were present on the platform at Charing Cross, and took leave of the Empress. At Dover the Imperial party was received by the entire garrison, with bands, under General Parke.

24. TRIAL OF A TICHBORNE WITNESS.—Mrs. Mina Jury has been indicted at Knutsford for stealing four merino blinds, two antimacassars, a towel, and two sheets, the property of Peter Simpson, landlord of the Bate Hall public-house, Macclesfield, on Nov. 4. Mr. Ffoulkes, who prosecuted, said the prisoner was a person who had obtained some notoriety in this country. She was brought over from Australia, and appeared as a witness in the Tichborne case. Since her arrival here she seemed to have increased her knowledge by visiting different parts of the country. The learned counsel then gave an account of the prisoner’s career at Macclesfield, whither she went under the name of Madame Caradena from London, and succeeded in pilfering various articles from the hotels and lodging-houses. He added that while she was in the cell at Macclesfield terrific screams were heard to come from it. “On a policeman entering the cell the prisoner stated that a rat was in the cell. It had been on her face, and was under the bed. She implored him to look for it, but the officer “smelt a rat,” and told her to look for it herself. On the following Sunday she persuaded a policeman who was in charge to stoop down and look for the rat, and while he was doing so she ran out, locked the door, and escaped, leaving the gaoler inside. The screams of the lock-up keeper attracted the attention of the constables about the station, but not until the prisoner had had a good start. For some time there have been improvements going on at the Town Hall: and Mrs. Jury managed to escape through a hole in a temporary door,

her bonnet being found among the *débris*. She was re-arrested at Leek, Staffordshire, the following afternoon. Mrs. Jury was found guilty, and sentenced to six months' imprisonment, with hard labour.

29. GALE AND SHIPWRECK.—A very severe gale took place on the night of the 28th and on the 29th, which caused considerable damage to shipping and loss of life on our coasts. Its most disastrous result, however, was in the Bay of Biscay, where the steamer "*La Plata*," bound from the Thames to South America, with telegraph cable on board, foundered off Ushant. Of the crew, consisting of seventy-seven men and boys, only fifteen were saved; they had put off in a small boat, and after having been at sea for nearly twenty-four hours, almost without provisions, were picked up by the emigrant ship "*Gare Loch*." Thence fourteen of the survivors were transferred to the steamer "*Antenor*," and by this vessel they were brought to the Thames.

It appears that the wind up to Friday evening was fair, when it blew—as one man described it—"a living gale," and the ship became almost unmanageable. This was partly owing, some of the survivors declared, to the character of the machinery on board. The vessel shipped vast quantities of water, and the ponderous grappling apparatus, several tons in weight, was said to have shifted, splitting the decks and letting in the water. Another account is that she carried away her companion, and the water got down into the aft cabin, between which and the engine-room there was no bulkhead, so that, sweeping away the partition, the sea quickly extinguished the fires. When the water had thus got possession of the bottom of the vessel, one of the first effects of its force was to displace and lift the stoke plates; and these, it seems, cut the ash-pipe, through which is conveyed the sea-water for cooling the ashes. The sea then came rushing in through the broken tube, adding disastrously to the already overwhelming cumulation of waves that had broken over the deck. The captain and surgeon, who were last seen on the bridge, after a fruitless and desperate effort to launch the patent raft attached thereto, were asked, immediately before the ship went down, to put on life-belts. The answer of Captain Dudden was "No, no, never mind; leave me alone." The "*La Plata*" foundered off Ushant, in the full fury of the south-westerly gale, or rather hurricane, which, from the time of its outbreak, had veered round from the north. The quantity of telegraph cable which had been paid out, with the vain endeavour, by lightening the ship, to counteract the effects of the sea that broke in upon her, was 150 miles out of the 250 she had in her hold.

The lost were Captain Dudden, Mr. Hughes (the surgeon), the three officers, one of the four engineers, seven of the ten stewards and cooks, both the boatswains, the carpenter, all the eleven stokers, fourteen of the twenty-one seamen, and the whole of the cable-staff, numbering sixteen, with Mr. Ricketts, and the six

electricians accompanying him. The list of those who were rescued consists of three engineers, three stewards or cooks, seven sailors, and one lamp-trimmer, besides the boy, name unknown, who was left on board the "Gare Loch," and whose condition is described as bordering on insanity. A mental disorder, indeed, seems to have been more or less common to several among the rescued persons. A few days later intelligence arrived that two more of the crew, Mr. Lamont, the boatswain, and Mr. Hooper, the quartermaster, had been saved. The narrative of their rescue is as marvellous as any that has ever been read of adventures at sea; we take it from the *Gibraltar Chronicle*:—

"On Sunday morning, the 29th, when it became evident that the 'La Plata' must founder, two of the life-boats on deck were manned by some of the officers and crew, in the expectation that when the ship sank beneath them the boats would be left floating; this was really the case with one of the boats, but just as the ship was on the point of sinking, a heavy sea washed over her, broke up the other boat, in which fifteen men, including Lamont and Hooper, were sitting, and washed the whole of the boat's crew overboard. Lamont and Hooper had just risen to the surface when the ship took her final plunge, and they were drawn down again by the suction. On coming up the second time, they saw floating close to them the damaged air-raft, which they contrived to get hold of. This raft was made of compartments filled with air and joined by a canvas band, forming a seat. Seated on this band they were in a sort of trough, and the water came up to their waists, their bodies below the waist getting gradually benumbed. The sea was continually washing over them, and unless they had been men of strong vitality and sound *physique* they could hardly have lived through the three days until their final rescue. During the Sunday, the first day of their suffering, their anxious eyes could only discover one passing ship, and she passed much too far off to see them. On Monday there were a strong breeze and a nasty sea; but the weather was fine. Several ships passed at a distance; these they could plainly see; but by none of them could they hope to be seen. Tuesday was calm during the greater part of the day, and their hopes of safety were raised by seeing a three-masted schooner which passed within half a mile of them. They shouted with all their might, and thought they must be heard, but the schooner sailed on. The cry of distress was not heard, nor the dark speck on the water observed. Towards Tuesday evening the breeze freshened, and it continued to blow hard during the night. The men were exhausted, and in the conflict between wearied nature and hopes of life, they sank into a state between sleeping and waking, dozing for a minute or two and then suddenly starting again into consciousness. About four on Wednesday morning, the one who was in his waking moment saw through the darkness the loom of a vessel bearing down upon them, immediately roused his companion. The vessel rapidly ap-

proached, and came within a hundred yards of them. With all the strength that was left to them they uttered their cry for assistance, and after a few seconds' interval, a bright light told that their cry had been heard and was answered. For two hours the light burned like a beacon of safety before their eyes, but just before dawn it disappeared, and when day broke no ship was anywhere to be seen. Hope was fast giving way to despair, when about two hours after daylight the missing vessel bore down towards them. This was the Dutch schooner 'Wilhelm Benklezoon.' The master, when he heard the cry of distress, had immediately brought his ship to, and lay-to till the morning. In the meantime the shipwrecked men on the air-raft had drifted to leeward. When the master of the 'Wilhelm Benklezoon' found, at daybreak, that nothing could be seen, he conjectured from the force and direction of the wind the point to which any floating wreck or boat would have drifted, and bore down in that direction. But the sea was running so high that the master of the little schooner dared neither to lower a boat nor bring his vessel alongside the raft. He feared in the first case, that he should uselessly sacrifice his own men without rescuing the others, and in the latter case, his vessel would swamp the raft. He therefore beckoned to the two men to quit the raft and swim to the schooner. Thoroughly exhausted by their three days' exposure they mistrusted their powers of swimming even this short distance; but it was their only hope. Lamont, the boatswain, first made the attempt, and succeeded in getting alongside. Meantime, the schooner and raft had again separated, and the schooner made another tack to give Hooper a chance. He was still more exhausted than Lamont; but, thinking it was no worse to be drowned between the raft and the ship than to perish on the raft, he made the desperate effort, and struck out for the schooner. When he got alongside his hands were too benumbed even to clutch the rope which was held out to him, and he took it between his teeth. The little schooner was low in the water, and some of the crew leaning over and watching their opportunity caught him by the hands and so pulled him on board. They were unable to stand, and almost dead from exposure, and weakness from want of food, for it was then close upon noon on Wednesday, and they had eaten nothing since the previous Saturday evening. But they were brought round by the kindness of Captain Dorp and his crew, which could not be exceeded. The sailors gave up their berths to the shipwrecked men, and nothing was left undone that could add to their comfort." Lamont and Hooper were nursed in the hospital at Gibraltar till they were able to return to England, which they did about a month later, in a sadly crippled state.

30. DAY OF INTERCESSION.—On St. Andrew's Day special services were held in a large number of the metropolitan churches, in accordance with notice issued by the Archbishop of Canterbury, in connection with the Intercession for Foreign Missions. At St. Paul's Cathedral the Rev. Dr. Miller, Canon of Worcester and

Vicar of Greenwich, preached in the evening. At Westminster Abbey a sermon was delivered by Dean Stanley, and in the afternoon Dr. Caird, the Vice-Chancellor and Principal of the University of Glasgow, delivered a lecture, from the lectern in the nave, on the subject of Christian Missions.

— RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.—The list of railway accidents for November records thirty-three disasters, of which no fewer than twenty-eight were collisions; three persons have been killed, forty-seven have been seriously injured, thirty have been injured more or less, and, on a rough calculation, about 160 persons have been cut, bruised, and severely shaken. A dense fog prevailed over the greater part of the country on the 21st, and no less than eight of these accidents were reported as happening in consequence of it.

THE VICTORIA CROSS.—Another officer engaged in the Ashantee War, Captain Mark Sever Bell, R.E., has received this coveted decoration in recognition of "his distinguished bravery, and zealous, resolute, and self-devoted conduct at the battle of Ordahsu, on Feb. 4, 1874, while serving under the immediate orders of Colonel Sir John Chetham McLeod, K.C.B., of the 42nd Regiment, who commanded the Advanced Guard." The Victoria Cross, first instituted as a reward for valour, in Feb. 1857, is now in the possession of 106 officers of Her Majesty's Army, seven officers of the Royal Navy, one officer of the Royal Marines, and two Bengal civilians. Sixty of these crosses were conferred for acts of bravery during the Indian Mutiny, thirty-seven were won by officers during the war with Russia, six were conferred for gallantry during the war in New Zealand, three were won during the China war of 1860, three have been distributed for valour during the late Ashantee campaign, two for the Umbeyla campaign, two for Bhootan, one for Persia, one for the Looshai expedition, and one for an act of gallantry in rescuing some soldiers from drowning in the Indian Ocean—the only Victoria Cross not earned under fire.

DECEMBER.

2. THE PRINCE OF WALES AND THE FREEMASONS.—At a Grand Lodge of Freemasons, held at Freemasons' Hall, the acceptance of the Grand Mastership by the Prince of Wales was formally announced, and His Royal Highness was proclaimed Grand Master of the Order. A letter was read from the Prince, stating that he had appointed the Earl of Carnarvon as Pro-Grand Master; and the noble earl was introduced and proclaimed in his position by the Garter King of Arms. His lordship returned thanks for the honour conferred upon him, and announced that His Royal Highness the Grand Master had appointed Lord Skelmersdale as his Deputy Grand Master.

— A MELANCHOLY ACCIDENT has happened at the Foreign Office.—Charles Coxhead, a clerk in the librarian's department, aged eighteen, had gone to one of the upper floors to fetch some books and send them down in the lift, which is for the express purpose of carrying books and papers only, the clerks being strictly prohibited from riding down upon it. As he did not again make his appearance, another clerk went to look for him, and ultimately discovered him lying upon the top of the lift quite dead, he having apparently fallen down the shaft, a depth of forty-five feet. There seemed to be no doubt that, having placed the books on the lift and sent it down the shaft he had fallen into the opening, the place being exceedingly dark. The jury returned a verdict of "Accidental death," and appended a rider recommending "that a guard should be placed round the opening of the shaft, that a man should be specially employed to work the lift, that additional light should be provided, and that the prohibition as to the clerks riding down the lift should be rigidly enforced."

3. INTERNATIONAL COURTESIES.—Her Majesty has received an address of thanks from the French nation for the services rendered by the English people to the sick and wounded in the war of 1870-71. The address was contained in four large volumes, which were placed on a table for the purpose of being shown to Her Majesty, M d'Agiout and Comte Serrurier explaining the nature of their contents. Having accepted the volumes, Her Majesty made a reply to the deputation in French, of which the following is a translation:—"I accept with pleasure the volumes which you have presented, and which will be carefully preserved by me as records of the interesting historical events which they commemorate. They are beautiful as works of art; but their chief value in my eyes is that they form a permanent memorial of the gratitude of the French people for services freely and spontaneously rendered to them by Englishmen acting under a simple impulse of humanity. Your recognition of those services cannot fail to be appreciated by my subjects, and it will increase the friendly and cordial feeling which I am happy to believe exists between the two nations." The Queen subsequently directed that the volumes, which are very beautifully illuminated, should be placed in the British Museum, in order that the public might have an opportunity of inspecting them.

— ASHANTEE MEDALS.—On the same afternoon, Her Majesty personally conferred upon several seamen and marines the medals awarded for conspicuous gallantry during the Ashantee war. The men, nine in number, on arriving at Windsor, walked through the town from the railway station to the Castle, where they were received by Sir John Cowell. The Queen, accompanied by Princess Beatrice, entered the corridor shortly after one o'clock, the men being drawn up in line. Sir John Cowell and General Ponsonby were also present. The names of the men were called in turn, and Her Majesty handed the medals to them, with a kind word to each

man. The ceremony occupied only a few minutes, and at its conclusion the Queen and Princess Beatrice retired, and the men were entertained at a dinner which had been prepared for them. After their meal the men were shown round the Castle by one of the orderlies, and they left for London shortly after four o'clock.

7. THE SMITHFIELD CATTLE SHOW opened to-day, and though there was a falling off in the number of animals exhibited, the quality was quite equal to any previous year, and no less than 70,000 persons visited the show during the first three days. The Prince of Wales gained the champion prize, the 100*l.* plate, for the best beast in the yard, a short-horn cow.

— ECCLESIASTICAL JUDGMENT.—Mr. Mackonochie, the vicar of St. Alban's, Holborn, has again been tried before the Court of Arches for ritualistic practices. Sir Robert Phillimore gave judgment as follows:—The use of candles at morning service not for the purpose of giving light; the processions with banners, with a picture of the Virgin Mary on a crescent, the singing of the "Agnus Dei," the use of the sign of the cross in the presence of the congregation, of wafer-bread, and of the cope, chasuble, and alb in the communion service were held to be illegal. Mr. Mackonochie was therefore suspended for six weeks, and ordered to pay the costs. Mr. Brooks, the proctor for Mr. Mackonochie, lodged a notice of appeal, the effect of which is to suspend the order of suspension for some months.

8. SEVERE GALE.—The sea had hardly calmed down after the frightful storm which caused the loss of the "La Plata," when another tremendous gale rose on the night of December 8. On the north-east coast several vessels were wrecked, and the loss of life was considerable. In the Channel the French and Belgian mails were delayed some hours. In the isle of Jersey great damage was done at the New Harbour Works. About two hundred yards of the pier were washed away by the fury of the waves. Immense blocks of concrete, weighing several tons, were displaced and thrown about like so many marbles, and others broken as though they were wood. The sea undermined the tramway, and twisted the rails in all manner of shapes. The damage was estimated at many thousand pounds.

— FRAUDS ON THE STOCK EXCHANGE.—A case of the highest importance to the commercial community has been heard before Sir Andrew Lusk, the late Lord Mayor, during several weeks past. The defendants were Mr. Joseph Aspinall, a merchant, of 33 Gresham House, City; Mr. Samuel Guiney Fry, of 9 Dowgate Hill; and Mr. George P. Knocker, of 155 Cannon Street. They were summoned at the instance of Mr. John Gamgee, a financial agent in Great Winchester Street, charging them with having conspired with John Saunders Muir and others to defraud certain members of the Stock Exchange. The charge really was one of conspiracy to establish a "corner" in shares in a company which had no more than a nominal existence, thus violating the provisions

of the Companies Act, and attempting to defraud certain members of the Stock Exchange, and actually defrauding Mr. Hankey. It was stated that the Eupion Fuel and Gas Company (Limited) was started in March last, with a capital of 50,000*l.*, in as many shares of 1*l.* each; the avowed object of the association being to purchase and work certain patents for the production of gas. The allegation was that the directors now committed for trial constituted the whole of the company; certain other names of nominees of theirs, entirely under their control, having been used by them at the time the company was started, as allottees of shares, and as such inserted on the register for the purpose of obtaining a settlement and quotation on the official list of the Stock Exchange. A more serious charge follows. It was alleged that the defendants, having the whole of the shares under their control, and having secured their quotation on the Stock Exchange by the means stated, proceeded to make gains for themselves by a series of fictitious sales and purchases through different stockbrokers, the end being that some broker or brokers should be committed to sell a large number of the shares, and should then find himself or themselves unable to deliver them at the time of settling, so as to be constrained to pay large premiums to purchase new shares or get off their bargains. The scheme thus concocted was, according to the evidence, so far carried out that Mr. Hankey, a member of the Stock Exchange, found himself committed to deliver 2,800 shares without being able to obtain one of them. The rule of the Stock Exchange bound him to deliver, and he would have been liable in an indefinite sum for a failure of his engagement had not the Committee of "the House" suspended the operation of the rule, upon evidence laid before them, which convinced them that Mr. Hankey had been made the tool of a conspiracy. It was upon substantially the same evidence that Sir Andrew Lusk yesterday committed the defendants to take their trial at the next Sessions of the Central Criminal Court. They were admitted to bail.

— CRUISE OF THE "BASILISK."—Her Majesty's ship "Basilisk" has just returned to England after a commission of four years. The extent of the maritime discoveries made by her officers during this period, can only be appreciated after a comparison of the latest existing charts of Torres Straits and Eastern New Guinea with the charts issued, or to be issued, by the Admiralty, containing the results of the "Basilisk's" survey. To put the matter shortly we may state that the officers and men of her Majesty's ship "Basilisk" have surveyed about 1,200 miles of coast line, added, at least, twelve first class harbours, several navigable rivers, and more than 100 islands large and small, to the chart; and, lastly, have been able to announce the existence of a new and shorter route between Australia and China. After the news of this ship's first discoveries reached England, Lieutenant Dawson, R.N. (Admiralty surveyor) was sent out to join her, and she was ordered to complete and follow them up. This has been done with perfect

success, and the whole of the previously unknown shores of Eastern New Guinea have been carefully surveyed, and the route above referred to opened up.

The principal part of this work of discovery and surveying has been performed by the captain and officers in small open boats, detached from the ship, in some instances for many weeks, and among savages who had never before seen a white face. The relations established with the natives were always most friendly, and such as will form a good basis for future intercourse. The health of the ship's company was satisfactory—indeed, surprisingly good, when we consider the life of constant exposure in a tropical climate, and the anxious and arduous labour required. The ship was in constant danger of loss on the treacherous coral reefs which surrounded her; and officers and men, alike, may be congratulated on their safe return, as well as on the success which has attended their enterprise. We understand that two lofty mountains, about 11,000 feet high, facing each other, on the north-east coast of New Guinea, have been named "Mount Gladstone" and "Mount Disraeli."

9. THE TRANSIT OF VENUS.—This astronomical event, which had been eagerly looked forward to by scientific men, and prepared for by several expeditions sent out by various nations of Europe and the United States of America, to those parts of the globe from which it could be best observed, took place to-day. Telegrams were received in the course of the next few days from the different stations: in Egypt, India, Japan, China, and Persia, the weather was fine and observations successful; in Tasmania and some other regions, the reverse was the case.

12. A GREAT JEWEL ROBBERY took place at the Paddington terminus this evening, by which Lady Dudley lost a case of jewels, worth, it was at first said, 50,000*l*. This was afterwards contradicted, and the value brought down to less than half that sum, but a reward of 1,000*l*. was immediately offered by Lord Dudley for the recovery of the jewels. It appears that Lord and Lady Dudley arrived at the station in their brougham at 6.20 P.M., followed by a cab containing two of the countess's female servants, with the jewel-case under their charge. One of the women, on alighting, placed the box on the pavement, whilst she turned to assist her companion, and in that moment it was gone. An instant search was made by the earl's servants and by the railway officials in attendance, but no tidings could be gained of it. At this moment the Prince of Wales arrived to travel by the same train in a "slip carriage" as far as Slough, on his way to Windsor, and a desire on the part of the railway authorities to despatch the train punctually led to some little confusion, amid which the express left the station without any intelligence of the missing box having been obtained. On arriving at Reading Lord Dudley alighted, and explaining to the station agent the circumstance, required that every compartment in the train should be searched, in the hope that the missing box might have been separated from his

other luggage. The search proving fruitless, his lordship decided upon returning to London at once, which he did, accompanied by the lady's maid. On reaching Paddington, he drove direct to his jewellers, Messrs. Hunt and Roskell, of New Bond Street, whither the police from Scotland Yard were immediately summoned. Under their advice a detailed list of the lost jewels was prepared and circulated among the leading metropolitan and local pawnbrokers. The police held out no hope of recovering the lost jewels. They considered the theft had been accomplished by some thieves who had probably been dogging the noble earl's movements for months, or even years, and that before the sun rose the next morning every jewel of value would have been removed from its setting, and the settings melted down.

15. *THE SHAKERS IN THE NEW FOREST.*—The Shakers' community at New Forest Lodge, near Lymington, have been ejected from their residence by the sheriff, acting for the mortgagee. Twenty men and 111 women and children were turned out, together with all their furniture. Shelter was offered them, but they refused, and stayed in the road all night singing and praying. The weather was most inclement, snow and heavy rain falling throughout the night, with a strong east wind. It seems that the estate, about sixty acres in extent, was purchased about two years ago, and mortgaged at the same time. As the interest and principal had not been paid, the mortgagee foreclosed, and an ejectment writ was served. Notice had been given, but a body of Shakers who were upon the estate made no endeavour to remove. At eleven o'clock on Tuesday morning the sheriff's officers entered the premises, but met with no resistance. A crowd of 500 people assembled to witness the ejectment. About twenty or thirty men were selected, and the removal of goods commenced, and lasted till five o'clock in the afternoon. For about fifty yards on each side of the road, goods and chattels were piled up against straw ricks, bean ricks, and furze. At one o'clock the Shakers assembled for dinner, which consisted of boiled carrots, potatoes, turnips, onions, and pumpkins, and after the meal was over they continued singing and praying till the ejectment was concluded at five o'clock. One woman danced for two hours without stopping for a moment. The head of the community, known by the name of Mother Girling, was taken up, with the hope of obtaining a certificate of insanity against her, but the insanity could not be proved, and she was released. A farmer named Beazley, who resides in the neighbourhood, gave shelter to the unhappy community in his barn, a building containing two apartments, each about twenty feet by ten feet; and in this about eighty persons were lodged. Mr. Auberon Herbert, M.P., also offered them shelter.

16. *A DESTRUCTIVE FIRE* broke out to-day in Oxford, by which damage to the extent of at least 30,000*l.* was caused. Between two and three, a strong light was observed at the back of some premises near the Randolph Hotel, and in a short

time the whole of Messrs. Collins's carriage manufactory was in flames. Six fire engines speedily came up, together with a strong force of the city police and the Volunteer Brigade, but were compelled to stand almost idle, in consequence of the water not being pumped from the waterworks till after four o'clock. Copious streams were then poured on the blazing mass, but the strong north-east wind and the dry nature of the buildings made it impossible to do more than prevent it from spreading. The fire was got under about ten o'clock, but not before the whole of the workshops in Messrs. Collins's factory were burnt to the ground, together with several shops. Fears were at one time entertained as to the Randolph Hotel. About sixty or seventy carriages were destroyed, among them being that used by the judges at the assizes, and a new four-horse omnibus finished only the previous day for Lord Talbot. The wife of a shopkeeper and a servant escaped by jumping from the windows into sheets held out for them, and suffered only from fright.

22. "TITA."—By the death to-day, at the age of seventy-eight, of Giovanni Battista Falcieri, a messenger at the India Office, an interesting relic of a bygone time has disappeared from among us. "Tita" Falcieri was a gondolier at Venice at the time of Lord Byron's residence there in 1816, and was taken by the poet into his service. He was with his master at the time of his death in 1824, and accompanied his remains to England; Sir John Hobhouse, afterwards Lord Broughton, then took Falcieri into his employ as courier, but before long the courier returned to his former calling, and continued to serve as valet with Isaac Disraeli, author of "The Curiosities of Literature," and father to the present Prime Minister, until his master's death. In 1852 Lord Broughton got him a berth as messenger at the Board of Control, a situation which he retained under the India Office. He was a very pleasant, obliging person; and, as assistant to the head office keeper, the polite old Italian, with his broken English, was often held in friendly chat by those who came across him in the way of business.

24. TERRIBLE RAILWAY ACCIDENT AT SHIPTON.—The most frightful railway accident which has yet taken place in England happened on this Christmas Eve, on the Great Western Railway, a few hundred yards from the village of Hampton Gay, and close to Shipton-on-Cherwell, near Oxford. The train, like most of those despatched at this season, contained a large number of passengers, most of whom were about to visit friends for Christmas. They were being conveyed in thirteen carriages, with two engines, from the Great Western Railway Station at Oxford to Birmingham and the north. The train, which was half an hour late, proceeded safely for about six miles, when the tire of a wheel of a third-class carriage broke, and in an instant the carriage was thrown off the rails. The embankment at this spot is about twenty feet high, and when the first carriage was thrown off, several others at once followed, and were hurled by the momentum down the embank-

ment. The engines, however, remained on the rails, the coupling-chains having broken away. At the time of the accident the train was travelling at the rate of about thirty-five miles an hour, and the carriages dashed forward one after the other some distance after they were detached from the engine, and before they left the rails, and tumbled down the embankment. To those in the end of the train farthest from the engine the first that was felt of anything having occurred was the bumping and jerking of the carriages and great oscillation. When the first carriage turned over, others immediately snapped their coupling-chains, and then suffered the same fate as the carriage which had caused the accident. The woodwork of the canal bridge was carried away, and here indeed one of the carriages fell over into the canal. Two of the hinder carriages never left the rails, a remarkable circumstance, considering the speed at which the train was proceeding when its progress was suddenly arrested. The moment these two carriages stopped, the passengers clambered out on the line in a state of great terror. One of them had the presence of mind at once to seize a large red rug and run up the line, and so stopped another train which was due in a few minutes. This no doubt prevented another catastrophe, for the passenger met the following train before reaching Woodstock Road station. The more slightly injured at once set to work with praiseworthy alacrity to help their distressed fellow-travellers. Large fires were lighted along the embankment from the broken carriages, and thither the wounded went in dismal groups, while others sat disconsolately in the snow, apparently overcome with the magnitude of the disaster and their own providential escape from a fearful death. There can be no doubt whatever that in the case of the majority of the victims death was instantaneous.

The number of killed extricated from the wreck was twenty-six, all of whom were removed to the Hampton Gay Paper Mill till their friends could arrive to identify their bodies. Of the wounded who were sent to the Oxford Infirmary four died before their arrival there, and one as soon as the Infirmary was reached, making thirty-one deaths. Besides the fifty injured who were taken to the infirmary, several others were conveyed to the accident ward, so badly hurt that it was impossible to ascertain their names and addresses. Three more died in the course of the next few days. The cause of the accident has not been satisfactorily explained. It seems that to make provision for the large number of travellers on Christmas Eve, an extra third-class carriage, a four-wheeled one, was put on to the train at Oxford, and it was suggested that this was an old carriage which had been put aside for repairs; but this was positively denied by the Oxford station master.

— **COLLIERY EXPLOSION.**—On the same day a disastrous gas explosion took place in the Bignall Hill Colliery, North Staffordshire. There were sixty-one men at work in the pit at the time

of the explosion, but only nineteen were in the "thick coal," and two of these were at the extreme end, near the shaft, when the accident occurred, and were not dangerously hurt. The bodies, as they were brought to the surface, were sent to their homes, which are scattered over the country for two or three miles around. None of the men employed in other workings were affected by the explosion, which was confined to the "thick coal" workings. It is still a mystery how it was caused, but no doubt seems to be entertained that the men were working with naked candles, when a rush of gas occurred. The pit was examined a fortnight before the accident by the Government inspector, and reported to be quite safe.

— BURNING OF THE "COSPATRICK."—On Christmas Day news was received in London of the burning at sea of the emigrant ship "Cospatrick." This was a teak-built sailing-ship, of 1,200 tons, constructed at Moulmein, in India, and classed A 1 at Lloyd's until 1883. She was 190 ft. in length, 34 ft. in breadth, and had 23 ft. depth of hold. Purchased by her present owners, Messrs. Shaw, Savill and Co., of 34 Leadenhall Street, from the late Mr. Duncan Dunbar, she was now making only her second voyage under the flag of that house. She had been for many years under the command of Captain Elmslie, her late chief officer, who retained his position when the vessel was transferred to her new owners, and who was in chief command on the present voyage. She left Gravesend on Sept. 11 last, carrying 429 emigrants, sent out through the General Agency of New Zealand, and bound for Auckland. There were 177 male adults, 125 women, 58 boys, 53 girls, and 16 infants under twelve months. Her crew was composed of 43 persons—officers, men, and boys all told. There were also on board four independent passengers, making in all a total of 476 souls.

The "Cospatrick" had been sixty-seven days at sea, when at midnight on Nov. 17 the alarm was given that she was on fire. The flames were at first, as it appears, confined to the fore-part of the vessel. Either by the sudden shrivelling up of sails and tackle, or by the want of nerve of the steersman, command was lost over the vessel, and she "went about"—that is, she turned her head round to the wind, and the wind blew flame and smoke in upon the ship. The captain had "turned in," but he immediately came on deck and attempted to put her before the wind. The appliances the ship had for extinguishing the fire were tried in vain. The wind, blowing from the bows, carried flames and volumes of smoke throughout the after-part of the vessel. The boats in the fore-part of the vessel had been set on fire, but there was a rush to the other boats. One which was on the davits, hanging over the starboard side, was filled till its stern dipped into the sea, and then the boat capsized. The first and the second officer each took charge of one boat, and successfully got off. The boat of Mr. Romaine, the first mate, contained, beside himself, six seamen and

twenty-five passengers. The other boat was under command of Mr. Henry MacDonald, the second officer, and that is said to have contained about the same number of persons. Boats and ship did not part at once. From the boats the men had the unenviable opportunity of observing, without being able to relieve, the confusion which ultimately must have prevailed on board ship. Nearly 430 people perished in their sight. The masts were seen to fall, and at last the flames reached the stern, and there was an explosion under the poop deck. After the burning of the vessel, she remained afloat for two days, and the boats remained by her, in the hope, perhaps, of obtaining provisions. Captain Elmslie, Mrs. Elmslie, their son, and Dr. Cadle, are described as surviving the fire and then jumping overboard to escape death by the sinking of the vessel. Dr. Cadle is said to have taken the captain's son in his arms before jumping overboard, and then it is added these four persons were all drowned together.

It was the 19th before the ship went down. The two boats kept together for two days, and then parted company in rough weather. Of Romaine's boat we have heard nothing more. Of Mr. MacDonald's boat we learn that on the 22nd they suffered much from thirst, and next day Bentley, a Lancashire labourer, aged thirty-seven, who had gone out with his wife and four children, fell overboard and was drowned. The history of the voyage became now a narrative of madness and death, and of life prolonged by the most horrible expedient of shipwrecked men. On the 26th, before daylight, a bark passed close to the boat. She was hailed, but no answer came. There were now left in the boat five men—MacDonald, second mate; Lewis and Hamilton, able seamen; Cotter, ordinary seaman, and another. The corpses of their companions had been thrown overboard. Two of the men who remained had lost their reason, and the others were faint and drowsy. It is said that MacDonald was roused at the moment when their rescuers bore down upon them by one of his companions who had become insane, and who bit MacDonald's heel. It had rained that day, but they were unable to catch a drop of water. In this state they were found on the 27th by the "*British Sceptre*," an iron sailing ship, on her way from Calcutta to Dundee. The commander, Captain Jahnke, and his officers, treated the shipwrecked men with every kindness, and conveyed them to St. Helena, where they remained three days, and then sailed for England in the mail steamer "*Nyanza*," which landed them at Plymouth on the last night of the year. The following is from a letter written by one of the officers of the "*British Sceptre*":—"We had rounded the Cape, and were sailing along nicely at the rate of six knots, when something was seen a mile off to which we at first paid no attention, supposing it to be driftwood. But on getting closer we could make out it was a boat, with an old petticoat for a sail, and six men in it, who seemed to be in a praying attitude, for they were too near death to be able to shout. We got the boat alongside, and an awful sight

met our gaze—one man dead, and the other five so feeble they could not speak. In three or four hours they must all have been dead. We got them carefully on board, and put them in warm beds, and in a few hours one was able to tell the horrors they had undergone. They were the only survivors of the ship "Cospatrick," which sailed from London with 500 emigrants from Auckland, and had been destroyed by fire. One of the men was the mate, Henry MacDonald. The passenger and one of the seamen died in spite of all we could do, being beyond human aid. The men looked like skeletons. They were nine days in the boat without food or water." The three survivors were MacDonald, Lewis, and Cotter. The scene of the catastrophe was fixed by the former at lat. 37° 15' S., long. 12° 25' E.; he had taken the reckoning at noon on Nov. 17, before the fire broke out. When they were picked up they had reached lat. 28° 50' S., long. 12° 4' E.

31. MORE DISASTERS AT SEA.—The tale of the terrible disasters by sea and land that have cast such a melancholy gloom over the Christmas of 1874 is not yet complete. Intelligence has arrived that the steamer "Delfina" struck on a rock off the west coast of South America, and that between twenty and thirty of her passengers and crew were drowned. Six others escaped in a boat, and about as many more were saved by clinging to the rigging. The ship "Tennyson" arrived in Greenock on the 30th, having on board a part of the crew of the "Calcutta," of London, which took fire and was abandoned while on her voyage from Newcastle to Aden, with coals. The "Calcutta" left Newcastle in July last, and when two months and eleven days out her cargo was discovered to be on fire. The captain and crew, twenty-eight in number, abandoned her in three boats. The crews of two of the boats were picked up after being five and eight days at sea respectively, and landed at St. Helena; but the third boat, in which were Captain Patchet and his son, with nine seamen and mate, has not been heard of since. There is reason to fear that the General Steam Navigation Company's steamer "Scorpio," which left Cardiff on the 4th inst. for Charente, with a cargo of coals, has been lost, with all hands, twenty-six in number, as wreckage, bearing the name of the vessel, has been washed ashore at Barnstaple. A Norwegian barque has landed at Queenstown two survivors of the crew of an American ship, the "Amity," which foundered at sea about forty miles south of Kinsale. When the "Norge" discovered the wreck only four men remained clinging to the rigging. Two were picked off by a boat, but the others refused to let go, and during the night they disappeared with the wreck. Eighteen lives in all have been lost. A terrible story is told in the *Batavia Handelsblad*, of the British ship "Euxine," bound from North Shields for Aden, which was destroyed by fire in the South Atlantic in August last. The crew took to the boats, which soon separated from each other. The occupants of one boat lost all their provisions and water, and, after enduring the pangs of hunger for some time, drew lots to decide

which of them should be killed to preserve the lives of his companions. The lot fell upon an Italian sailor, who was killed and cut up. Only a few hours afterwards the others were picked up by the Dutch ship "Java Packet." The screw-steamer "Cortes," with a crew of twenty-nine hands, foundered in the Bay of Biscay on the 16th, and only four were rescued, being picked up in a boat by a passing vessel.

— RAILWAY ACCIDENTS were numerous during the last week of the month. On Christmas morning there was a collision between a passenger train and a coal train, at Springs Branch, near Wigan, on the London and North-Western Railway. One death and injuries to about twenty persons were the results. Another railway accident happened at the Spring's Branch junction, near Wigan, on the night of the 26th. A coal train, travelling at a rapid rate, ran into another, and great damage was done; and four persons were seriously injured. A collision between a passenger train and a goods train also took place on the 28th at Haughley junction, on the Great Eastern Railway, and several persons were hurt, but none seriously. Several railway accidents happened on the 30th. At the Brixton station of the London, Chatham, and Dover line a Crystal Palace train ran into a City train. The guard's van of the latter was smashed, and several passengers were shaken, but no serious injuries were sustained. Early in the day a number of waggons broke loose on the Cornwall mineral line, and ran down an incline for three miles. Several persons who were in the guard's van jumped out, and were more or less injured. A goods train and a passenger train also broke down on different parts of the Great Western Railway, through the fracture of axles, but no one was hurt in either case. The report for the whole month comprised no less than 34 railway accidents, of which 23 were collisions; 37 persons were killed, 22 dangerously injured, 131 more or less seriously hurt, and about 140 badly bruised, cut, and shaken.

— THE WEATHER.—After the gales, which prevailed during the early part of the month, subsided, the weather assumed more of the "old-fashioned Christmas" type than we have been accustomed to of late years, and swelled the weekly bills of mortality in London to a height much above the average, the death-rate rising in the last week to 37 per 1,000. The skating season began in the middle of the month, and the usual reports of unsafe ice, immersions, and rescues effected or only attempted, followed. But London escaped the tremendous snowstorm which swept over the west and north of the island during the last week of the year. In the south-west the snow fell three days successively, and reached a depth which is said to have been unequalled since 1810; railway and all other communications were seriously impeded, and in some places stopped entirely. The full fury of the storm was felt most severely in Scotland, where on New Year's Day dozens of trains were snowed up all night, and the sufferings of the passengers, especially on the Great North of Scotland Railway, are described

as fearful. The passengers near Glamis got hold of a pig, roasted it whole, and devoured it, without bread or condiment. In another train the passengers were fortunate enough to discover a quantity of bread among the goods in the vans, and were thus able to allay their hunger during the many hours of detention. Provisions were sent out for the passengers, but in many cases it was impossible to reach them till the following day. Several instances were reported of persons being lost in the snow or frozen to death. A rapid thaw set in in England on the first day of the new year, which soon extended to Scotland.

OBITUARY

OF

EMINENT PERSONS DECEASED IN 1874.

January.

DR. LIVINGSTONE.

OUR obituary for the year must commence with the name of this great missionary and discoverer, for although his death took place in May, 1873, the news of it did not reach England till the end of January, 1874.

David Livingstone, the son of a small tea-dealer in Lanarkshire, was born in or about the year 1816, at East Kilbride, in that county. In his early youth he worked at the Blantyre Mills, but found time to attend an evening school, where he imbibed a taste for classical literature, as well as for works on religion and on natural science.

His religious feelings, however, warmed towards a missionary life, he felt an intense longing to become a "pioneer of Christianity in China," hoping that he might be instrumental in teaching the true religion to the inhabitants of the Far East, and also that by so doing he might "lead to the material benefit of some portions of that immense empire." In order to qualify himself for some such an enterprise he set himself to obtain a medical education, as a superstructure to that which he had already gained so laboriously; and this he supplemented by botanical and geological explorations in the neighbourhood of his home, and by attending medical classes in Glasgow, and divinity lectures. After being admitted a Licentiate of the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons, he resolved in 1838 to offer his services to the London

Missionary Society as a candidate for the ministry in foreign parts.

His offer was accepted by the society, and having spent three months in theological study in England, and having been ordained to the pastoral office, he left these shores in 1840 for Southern Africa, and after a voyage of nearly three months reached Cape Town. His first destination was Port Natal, where he became personally acquainted with his fellow-countryman, the still surviving Rev. Robert Moffat, whose daughter subsequently became his wife and the faithful and zealous sharer of his toils and travels, and accompanied him in his arduous journey to Lake Ngami.

After some years spent in mission work in the Bechuana country, he made in 1849 his first essay as an explorer, strictly so called, as distinct from a missionary, in that year he made his first journey in search of Lake Ngami. In 1852 he commenced, in company with his wife, the "great journey," as he calls it, to Lake Ngami, of which a full and detailed account is given in the narrative he wrote of it; a work which he dedicated on its publication to Sir Roderick Murchison, as "a token of gratitude for the kind interest that he had always taken in the author's pursuits and welfare."

In 1855 the Victoria gold medal of the Geographical Society was awarded to Livingstone in recognition of his services to science by "traversing South Africa from the Cape of Good Hope, by Lake Ngami, to Linyanti, and thence to the western coast in 10 degrees south latitude." He subsequently retraced his

steps, returning from the western coast to Linyanti, and then—passing through the entire eastern Portuguese settlement of Tete—he followed the Zambesi to its mouth in the Indian Ocean. In the whole of these African expeditions it was calculated at the time that Livingstone must have passed over no less than 11,000 miles of land, for the most part untrudged and untraversed by any European, and up to that time believed to be inaccessible.

In 1856 Livingstone paid a visit to England, and in the spring of 1858 returned to Africa for the purpose of prosecuting further researches, and pushing forward the advantages which his former enterprise had to some extent secured. He carried with him the patronage and encouragement and the substantial support of Her Majesty's Government (more especially of Lords Clarendon and Russell), and of the Portuguese Government also. Within a very few months from the time of leaving England, Dr Livingstone and his expedition reached that part of the eastern coast of Africa at which the Zambesi falls into the ocean, here two small steamers were placed at their disposal, and they resolved to ascend the river and thence make their way into the interior. In these journeys Livingstone and his companions discovered the Lakes Nyassa and Shirwa, two of the minor inland meres of Africa, and explored the regions to the west and north-west of Lake Nyassa for a distance of 300 miles—districts hitherto unknown to Europeans, and which lead to the head waters of the north-eastern branch of the Zambesi and of several of that river's tributaries. The geographical results of the expedition then were the discovery of the real mouths of the Zambesi and the exploring of the immense territories around that river and its tributary, the Shire—results which not only possess much interest, but may prove hereafter of great value if this part of Africa can be brought within the sphere of civilisation and commerce.

In 1864 Dr. Livingstone was again in England, preparing and publishing the narrative of his explorations. At the close of 1865 he was despatched once more to Central Africa, under the auspices of the Geographical Society, in order to prosecute still further researches which would throw a light on that mystery of more than two thousand years' standing—the real sources of the Nile. Dr. Livingstone was accredited in this last expedition as Her Britannic Majesty's Consul to the various native chiefs of the unknown interior.

In July 1869, Dr. Livingstone re-

solved to strike westwards from his headquarters at Ujiji, on the Tanganyika Lake, in order to trace out a series of lakes which lay in that direction, and which, he hoped, would turn out eventually to be the sources of the Nile. After having penetrated as far west as Bambarre and Lake Kamalondo, and stopping short at Bagenya, about four degrees west from his starting point, he returned, and when, in the winter of 1870-71, he was found by Mr Stanley, the American traveller, he was once more in the neighbourhood of his old haunts, still bent on the discovery of certain "fountains on the hills," which he trusted to be able to prove to be the veritable springs of the Nile, and to gain the glory of being alone their discoverer—to use his own emphatic words, "So that no one may come after and cut me out with a fresh batch of sources."

Mr. Stanley left him with renewed stores of necessaries, as he refused to return to England until his great object was accomplished; and so he worked gallantly on, surrounded by none but African natives, until, on May 4, 1873, he succumbed to an attack of dysentery, after a fortnight's illness.

He had attempted to cross Lake Bemba from the north, and failing in this had doubled back and rounded the lake, crossing the Chambize and the other rivers flowing from it, had then crossed the Luapula, and died in Lobisa, after having crossed a marshy country with the water for three hours at a time above the waist. His faithful native attendants embalmed the body with salt, and brought it to Zanzibar, from whence it was conveyed to England, and buried with all honour in Westminster Abbey.

MR. BELL.

Mr Henry Glassford Bell, who was Sheriff of Lanarkshire, died on January 7. In the beginning of the month of November he had his right hand amputated, with the view to the removal of cancer. The operation was successfully performed. The late judge was born in Glasgow in 1805. He was educated for the legal profession, but, at the close of his university curriculum, he undertook the editorship of the *Edinburgh Literary Journal*, which he conducted with marked ability for several years. As editor of this journal he formed a close intimacy with many of the distinguished literary men who lived in Edinburgh about the beginning of the second quarter of the century.

He was the friend and frequent companion of Professor Wilson, and Wilson speaks of him with respect and affection in the "Noctes," where he appears under the name of "Tallboys." In 1832 Mr. Bell was admitted a member of the Faculty of Advocates, in 1839 he was appointed one of the Sheriffs Substitute of Glasgow, and in 1867 he was raised to the office of Sheriff Principal, on the death of Sir Archibald Alison. Notwithstanding the arduous nature of his judicial duties he never relinquished his fondness for literary pursuits. Some while ago a volume of his occasional productions was published by Macmillan under the title of "Romances and Ballads." His literary fame will rest, however, on his well-known poem, "Mary Queen of Scots," written in his early years.

MAJOR BENT.

Major John Bent, a Peninsular veteran, died in his ninety-second year. His first commission in the regular army bears date October 3, 1804, as ensign in the 5th (Northumberland) Fusiliers. He had previously served in the South Devon Militia, at that time on active service, under the command of the late Lord Rolle. Major Bent took part in the operations against Buenos Ayres in 1807, also in the latter part of the campaigns in the Peninsula. He was present at the battles of the Pyrenees, Nivelle, Nive (from December 9 to 13, 1813), passage of the Gave d'Oléron, battle of Orthes, actions of Vic Bigorre and Tarbes, and battle of Toulouse, for which services he obtained the war medal with five clasps. Major Bent retired from the army in 1831. He subsequently became a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant of the county of Bucks, and was also the first chairman of the Eton Union under the new poor law. Major Bent was born on April 26, 1782.

DR. BIBER

The Rev George Edward Biber, who possessed two foreign degrees, the Ph.D. of Tübingen and the LL.D. of Göttingen, was ordained in 1839 by the Bishop of London, and presented by his lordship to the incumbency of Holy Trinity, Rochester, in 1842, a living which he only resigned two years ago on preferment to a country benefice. Dr Biber's works range over a considerable field, but are chiefly educational and theological. He

was also known as a journalist, and was for some years on the staff of the *English Churchman*, a paper to which he was contributing up to the time of his death. Dr Biber edited the *John Bull* from 1848 to 1856, and was a regular writer in many of the religious periodicals. He used a hymn-book of his own compiling in his church at Rochester, entitled the "Rochampton Liturgic Psalmody and Hymnal."

MR BLACK.

Mr. Adam Black, who died at the age of all but 90 years, was a son of the late Mr. Charles Black, a respectable builder, of Edinburgh, and was educated at the High School and University of his native city, in which he entered into business as a publisher. His career in this sphere of life was marked by energy, industry, and liberality, and it was rewarded by his being chosen five years in succession as Lord Provost of Edinburgh, and his appointment as a magistrate and deputy lieutenant for that city, which he represented in Parliament in the Liberal interest from 1856 to 1865, succeeding to the seat held by Mr Thomas Babington Macaulay. He was in a very great measure *faber fortunæ suæ*. Many years ago he published the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and on the failure of Messrs Constable and Co the publication of the *Edinburgh Review* passed into his hands. He was an advanced Liberal in his politics from an early period of his life, and a strong Dissenter, being a member of the Independent body, and, from his connection as a publisher with the Whig *literati* of half a century ago, he was often chosen as a medium of communication between the Edinburgh Liberals and the Whig Government.

CAPTAIN BLAKE, R.N.

Captain William Hans Blake, who fell a victim to the climate of the Gold Coast during the war, had served with merited distinction in all parts of the world. During the Russian War, twenty years ago, he was in the Black Sea and in the Baltic, as mate of the "Albion" and of the "Duke of Wellington." From 1857 to 1859 he was Lieutenant of the "Cambrian," employed in the China War. In 1860 he was appointed First Lieutenant of the "Niger," and engaged in the Maori War of New Zealand. Here, when in command of a landing-party of seamen, Lieutenant Blake received a most

dangerous wound. He was shot in the breast, and a post-mortem examination has lately found the ball lying near his heart. For his brave conduct upon this occasion, Lieutenant Blake was rewarded with a life pension and promotion to the rank of Commander. From 1863 to 1865 he was in command of the "Alecto," on the South American station. He subsequently held command of the "Mutine," in the Pacific, to 1866, and of the "Falcon," on the Australian station, till his promotion to post rank as captain on Sept. 14, 1867. In April, 1873, Captain Blake was appointed to the command of H M S "Druid," on the West African and Cape station. He rendered much assistance to Colonel Harley, Administrator of the Gold Coast, in his preparations for the defence of Cape Coast Castle and Elmina against the Ashantees, before the arrival of the "Barracouta" in the month of June. With the rest of the naval squadron Captain Blake's ship and the shore parties of men under his command were actively employed in the later operations of the war. He joined the march to Coomassie, in command of the Naval Brigade, with the army of Sir Garnet Wolseley, but after conducting the sailors and marines to Prahsu, without the loss of one man, he was himself seized with dysentery, on Jan 17, and had to give up his charge to Commodore Hewett. Captain Blake was brought down to Cape Coast Castle and placed on board the hospital-ship "Victor Emmanuel," but died of exhaustion on the 27th.

MR. J. M. CAPE.

Mr. James Matthew Cape, who for nearly fifty years was connected with the London press, died very suddenly on January 18, two hours after an attack of apoplexy. He was in his seventy-eighth year. His career commenced on the *British Press*, of which he became acting editor. Then he worked very assiduously on the *Mirror of Parliament*. Subsequently, although several years senior, he was a colleague and friend of Charles Dickens in the palmy days of the *Morning Chronicle*. Later on he accepted an engagement upon the *Times*, which he retained for nearly twenty-six years, doing duty principally in the "Gallery" and in Convocation. At one time he was an active leader of the old Reform party, his anonymous contributions to journalism at that period being very numerous, and his statistical works especially noteworthy.

SIR JAMES CHATTERTON, BART.

General Sir James Charles Chatterton, third Baronet, of Castle Mahon, in the county of Cork, Colonel 4th (Royal Irish) Dragoon Guards, G C B, K H., and Knight of San Fernando of Spain, Gentleman of the Privy Chamber, died on Jan 5, just six weeks after his wife. He was born in 1794, the second son of Sir James Chatterton, Clerk of the State Papers in Ireland. He entered the Army, in the 12th Light Dragoons, in 1809, and was actively engaged in the Peninsula and at Waterloo. For his services he was given the war medal with seven clasps, as well as the Waterloo medal. He took part in the sieges of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, and the battles of Salamanca, Vittoria, Nivelle, and Nive, and various minor actions, and in 1815 fought at Quatre Bras and Waterloo, and was in the advance on and at the capture of Paris. At the State funeral of the Duke of Wellington he was commissioned by the Queen, "in consideration of his long, faithful, and distinguished career," to carry the grand banner. Sir James sat in Parliament as M P for the county of Cork from 1831 to 1835 and from 1849 to 1852, and was High Sheriff from 1851 to 1852. He succeeded to the baronetcy at the decease of his brother, Sir William Abraham Chatterton, second Baronet, in 1855.

SIR MONTAGU CHOLMELEY, BART.

Sir Montagu John Cholmeley, the Liberal member for North Lincolnshire, who died Jan 18, in his seventy-second year, was returned for Grantham as far back as 1826, but was an unsuccessful candidate for that borough at the dissolution which followed the death of George IV., and was again beaten there at the general election following the passing of the first Reform Act. He remained out of Parliament until Jan., 1847, when he was elected without opposition for North Lincolnshire upon the accession of Lord Worsley to the Earldom of Yarborough. In July, 1852, he was defeated by Mr Banks Stanhope, but in 1857 he regained his seat, and represented the division in the Liberal interest until his death.

LORD COLONSAY.

On the last day of this month, the House of Lords lost one of its most able "law lords," and the legal profession in Scotland one of its oldest members, in

the person of Lord Colonsay, who died at Pau at the age of eighty. From 1824 to 1834 he held the shrievalty of Perthshire. He was Solicitor-General for Scotland under the two Administrations of Sir Robert Peel, in 1834-35 and 1841-42, in the latter year he was appointed to the office of Lord Advocate, which he held till 1846. From 1843 down to 1851 he held a seat in the House of Commons for Argyleshire. In 1843 he was chosen Dean of the Faculty of Advocates, and this office was conferred on him by re-election year by year down to the time of his being raised to the judicial bench in 1851, when he became a Lord of Session, taking the title, according to custom, of Lord Colonsay. In May, 1852, he succeeded Lord Boyle as Lord Justice-General and President of the Court of Session, and was raised to the peerage in 1867 on retiring from the Scottish bench. Lord Colonsay was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for both Midlothian and Argyleshire. He was never married, and consequently the title, which was conferred upon him at Lord Derby's instance in 1867, became extinct by his lordship's decease.

MR. MORIER EVANS.

Mr. D Morier Evans, son of the late Joshua Lloyd Evans, formerly of Llanidloes, Montgomeryshire, was born in London in 1819, and from an early age was intimately connected with periodical literature. After being for several years assistant City correspondent of the *Times*, he assumed in 1857 the management of the same department of the *Morning Herald* and *Standard*, which post and also that of general manager he retained until the end of 1872, when he left the *Standard*, and in March, 1873, started the *Hour*. In this last venture he spent his fortune, and became a bankrupt on the 19th ult. This event preyed on his mind and broke down his health. He was the author of numerous works, the principal of which were "The Commercial Crisis of 1847-8," "History of the Commencement of the Crisis 1857-8," "City Men and City Manners, Facts, Failures, and Frauds, &c." He was also intimately connected with the *Banker's Magazine*, the *Bulldozer*, the *Stock Exchange Gazette*, and other commercial papers. He died on Jan. 1.

LIEUT.-GENERAL FRENCH.

Lieut.-General Henry John French expired on Jan. 25, at his residence in

Belgrave Road, Eccleston Square, in the seventy-eighth year of his age. This officer, whose first commission as ensign bears date Aug. 27, 1812, had been colonel of the 80th Foot since Sept. 3, 1867. He served with the 85th Light Infantry in the Peninsula from Aug. 1813 to the end of the campaign in 1814, and was present at the siege of San Sebastian, the passage of the Bidassoa, battles of Nivelle and Nive, and the investment of Bayonne. For these services he received the Peninsular war medal, with two clasps. He also served in the American war, having been engaged at the actions of Bladensburg and Baltimore, the attack on New Orleans, and the taking of Fort Bowyer. He subsequently served with the 85th Regiment during the whole of the Canadian Rebellion of 1837-38.

MR. HICKS.

The Rev. William Hicks, rector of Sturmer, Essex, who died Jan. 11, was one of the few remaining Trafalgar veterans. He was born at St. Columb Major in 1788, and was educated at Truro and Launceston. In 1803 he joined the "Triumph," from which ship he was transferred to the "Conqueror," in August of the following year. On board that ship, under the command of Capt. Sir Israel Pellew, he was present, and in the thick of the fight at the battle of Trafalgar, where he was severely contused by the bursting of one of the "Conqueror's" guns. He escaped other injury. He afterwards served on board the "Queen," the "Niger," the "Hydra," the "Apollo," the "Africa," the "Foxhound," the "Meander," and the "Cameleon," of which last ship he was senior lieutenant. At the close of the war he left the navy and went up to Cambridge University, where he entered Magdalen College. In 1823 he took holy orders, and in 1830 was presented by the late Duke of Rutland to the rectory of Sturmer, which he held until his death.

LIEUT.-COLONEL O'HARA.

Lieut.-Col. Walter O'Hara, Knight of the Tower and Sword, died at Toronto on Jan. 13. He was one of the few surviving officers who served in the Peninsular War. He entered the army in 1806, and was selected to serve with the rank of major in the Portuguese army, and attached to the 6th Caçadores—a regiment which he afterwards commanded for several years. He was present in most

of the great actions of the war. At its close he continued to serve with the Portuguese army, and remained in the Peninsula until the breaking out of the civil war between the supporters of Dom Miguel and Dom Pedro, when he was arrested and imprisoned to prevent his influencing his regiment to remain true to their colours. Released on the demand of the British Minister, Lieut-Col. O'Hara was placed on half-pay of the Portuguese army and returned to England. He shortly afterwards sold his commission and emigrated to Canada, where he purchased an estate in the neighbourhood of Toronto, on which he lived until his death.

CAPTAIN HUYSCHE

Among the good and deservedly esteemed officers whom the country lost in the Ashantee War was Captain George Lightfoot Hayshe, Rifle Brigade, late Deputy-Assistant Quartermaster-General on the staff of Sir Garnet Wolseley. He died of fever and dysentery at Prah-su, on Jan. 19, in his 35th year. Captain Hayshe was the only surviving son of the late General Hayshe, C B, of Guernsey. He entered the 83rd Foot in 1856, and served with that regiment in Central India during the mutiny, but, exchanging into the Rifle Brigade on his promotion, he went with his regiment to Canada in 1866, and, in 1870, volunteered for the Red River Expedition, which he accompanied on the staff of Sir Garnet Wolseley. He published a clever and interesting book, narrating the history of that expedition, and showing the energy and skill which overcame its difficulties. Captain Hayshe passed into the Staff College in 1872, and in August last year, when it was determined to send the expedition to the West Coast, he was invited by Sir Garnet Wolseley to join his staff, and sailed with the head-quarters in the "Ambriz" on Sept 12. Captain Hayshe was appointed Deputy-Assistant Quartermaster-General, and was engaged in the bush-fighting which resulted in the retreat of the enemy beyond the Prah, and in missions to the native chiefs. His most valuable service, however, was in the survey of the country between the coast and the Prah, in which work he engaged with the greatest energy and zeal, penetrating with a slight native guard into the remote parts of the bush, often close to and in the rear of the Ashantee army. The map of the country was compiled under his supervision.

MADAME PAREPA-ROSA.

This accomplished vocalist was born in Edinburgh, in the year 1839, her father having been Baron Georgiades de Boyeska, a Wallachian noble. In 1855 the young Euphrosyne Parepa made her *début*, at Malta, as Amina, in "La Sonnambula," the stage having been chosen as her profession on the death of her father, whose marriage with a Protestant had deprived the daughter of all rights of heritage. The first success of the young singer was followed by her appearance in grand opera at Naples, Genoa, Rome, Florence, Madrid, and Lisbon, her reception having been everywhere of the most brilliant kind. Her voice was a genuine soprano, of extensive compass and fine quality, while her high dramatic powers enabled her to act and sing with equal facility. Madame Parepa's first stage appearance in this country was in 1857, as Elvira in "I Puritani," at the Lyceum Theatre, during the temporary occupation of that house by the Royal Italian Opera Company, after the burning of Covent Garden Theatre, and it was in that company, in its present home, that the singer was last heard in London, in 1872, when she appeared as Donna Anna, in "Don Giovanni," and as Norma. Several years previous to this latter date Madame Parepa had been married to a captain in the British Army, but was soon left a widow. During her professional tour in America in 1866 she made the acquaintance of Herr Carl Rosa, the eminent violinist; and in the following year they were married. A second, and also successful, American tour was followed by their recent return to this country, and the formation of Herr Rosa's English Opera Company, which pursued a profitable career in the provinces for several months, and was to have commenced a London season at Drury Lane this spring. Madame Parepa-Rosa died on Jan. 22.

LORD DE ROS.

The Right Hon. William Lennox Lascelles Fitzgerald de Ros, Lord de Ros, General in the Army, Colonel of the 4th Hussars, and Lieut.-Governor of the Tower of London, died, on the 6th inst., at Old Court, Strangford, county of Down. His Lordship was born on Sept. 1, 1791, the third son of Lord Henry Fitzgerald (third son of James, the first Duke of Leinster), and succeeded, at the death of his brother, Henry William, nineteenth Lord, in 1839, to the ancient

barony of de Ros, which dates from the reign of Henry III., and after that of Le Despencer, now enjoyed by Viscountess Falmouth, stands first on the roll of Barons. He was educated at Westminster and at Christ Church, Oxford, entered the Army in 1819, and attained the rank of General in 1868. He was Captain of the Yeomen of the Guard in 1852, and Equerry to the Prince Consort from 1853 to 1861. Lord de Ros was author of a "History of the Tower of London."

JOHN CHRISTIAN SCHETKY.

This artist, who died on the 29th, at the great age of ninety-five, was a favourite marine painter of George IV., William IV., "the sailor king," and her present Majesty. He came of an ancient Transylvanian family, and on the mother's side he was related to the artist family of Remagle. He was the contemporary, at the High School of Edinburgh, of Walter Scott, Lord Brougham, Leonard and Francis Horner, and others who were afterwards the great men of their day. When a boy, Robert Burns, his father's friend, begged him off a flogging for playing truant to sail toy ships at Leith. "Christopher North" mentions him more than once in "Noctes Ambrosianæ." In after life Sir Walter Scott and he were intimate friends, and among his companions were the Ettrick Shepherd, Sir William Allen, Sir Charles Paget, Lord Lyons, Clarkson Stanfield, and David Roberts. At seventeen he was already earning his living by teaching scene-painting. In 1801 he and his friend Francis Horner walked from Paris to Rome, and accomplished the last 104 miles in two days. On his return from Italy he took up his residence at Oxford as a teacher of painting. Subsequently he was successively Professor of Drawing at the Royal Military College at Marlow (now Sandhurst), at the Royal Naval College, Portsmouth (a position he held for twenty-five years), and at the dissolution of the college, in 1837, he was appointed Professor at the Hon. East India Company's College, Addiscombe, where he closed his public career by retirement in 1855. Visits to the Spanish peninsula when Wellington was there, to Ireland in the suite of George IV., and cruises with Queen Victoria, were among the incidents of the artist's long life. He published some works illustrated by engravings, photographs, and chromolithographs from his paintings and drawings, and his marine pictures are in various collections. Like

Vander Velde, his predecessor in the office of Royal Marine Painter, Schetky was a left-handed artist, and we should add that he was an accomplished musician and vocalist as well as painter.

LORD STUART DE DECIES.

This venerable and popular nobleman died on the 23rd, at his residence at Dromana, near Cappagun, in the county of Waterford, at the age of seventy years. The eldest of the three sons of the late Lord Henry Stuart (fifth son of John, fourth Earl and afterwards Marquis of Bute, and grandson of the Premier of the reigns of George II. and George III.), by his wife, Gertrude Amelia, daughter and sole heiress of George Vilhers, Earl of Grandison (a title which expired in 1800), he was born in June, 1803, and entered Parliament in 1826 as M.P. for Waterford, and it is almost needless to add that he supported Roman Catholic Emancipation. In the next Parliament he represented the borough of Danbury, in the Liberal interest, and was raised to the Peerage of the United Kingdom by Lord Melbourne in 1839. His Lordship, who, along with his brother, assumed by Royal license the additional name of Vilhers in commemoration of his maternal descent, was for many years Lord Lieutenant of the county of Waterford, and Colonel of the Waterford Militia.

February.

REV. DR. BINNEY.

This eminent Dissenting minister, after an illness of several weeks, died on Feb. 17, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. He had been a preacher and pastor of the Independent or Congregationalist religious denomination about fifty years. During the greater part of this time he officiated at the Weigh House Chapel or meeting-house, in Monument Yard. He was a native of Newcastle-on-Tyne, and was first apprenticed to a bookseller, but was afterwards educated for the ministry at a theological college at Wymondley, in Hertfordshire. His first ministerial employment was at Newport, in the Isle of Wight, which he left in 1829. The chapel in London was built for him in 1834, upon the site of a hall in which he had preached during five years before. It was a hall over the ancient "Weigh

House" or "Staple," which was the place used in former times for the official weighing of foreign merchandise brought to London. Dr Binney was one of the most earnest and impressive English pulpit speakers of his day, resembling in some degree the late Dr Guthrie, of Edinburgh. His liberality of feeling and frankness of demeanour gained him the esteem of members of the Established Church, and of the Protestant Dissenting communities. Indeed, he latterly declared that he had "no great objection either to moderate episcopacy or to liturgical forms;" and a variation of the latter was introduced into his own Sunday services. He visited the United States and Canada in 1845, and in 1847 went to Australia, where he remained two years. On his return to England he again took charge of the Weigh House "church and congregation." But, when the demolition of the building was proposed for the East London Railway, Dr Binney retired, in January, 1871, from the post he had so long occupied. In the following year he was appointed one of the professors of the Independent Theological College on the north side of Regent's Park, he also presided over the council of that college. The degree of LL.D. was conferred upon him by the University of Aberdeen, and that of D.D. by an American University.

MR. SHIRLEY BROOKS.

Mr. Charles Shirley Brooks died on Feb. 23, in his fifty-ninth year, having been born in 1815. After a good early education he became a law student, and in course of time passed an examination before the Incorporated Law Society. Having a preference for literature, Mr Brooks applied himself to dramatic composition and journalism, and met with success, which decided his subsequent career. He produced a series of dramas at the Haymarket, Lyceum, and Olympic theatres, the best known of which are "Our New Governor," "Honours and Tricks," and "The Creole." Mr Brooks became the writer of the Parliamentary summary for the *Morning Chronicle*, and occupied a seat in the reporters' gallery in the House of Commons for five sessions. During the intervals of this engagement he visited Russia, Syria, and Egypt, as the special commissioner despatched by the *Chronicle* in the prosecution of its inquiries into foreign as well as British "Labour and the Poor." His letters appeared in that journal, and some have been reprinted under the title of "The Russians of the South." Mr. Brooks

wrote several novels, the best known being "Aspen Court," "The Gordian Knot," "The Silver Cord," and "Sooner or Later." He also acquired considerable reputation as a lecturer, and had long contributed political and social articles to the *Illustrated London News*. He was for many years one of the most diligent contributors to *Punch*, and, on the death of Mr. Mark Lemon, in 1870, became the editor of that periodical.

ADMIRAL CARTER, C.B.

Admiral Thomas Wren Carter died on Feb. 1 at his residence at Ryde, Isle of Wight, in his eighty-fifth year. He entered the navy when only in his eleventh year, on board the "Warrior," 74, in which ship he was present at the battle of Copenhagen in April, 1801, and after various employments afloat was lieutenant of the "St Domingo," 74, bearing the flag of Admiral Sir Richard J. Strahan, in the Walcheren expedition, and at Flushing. When commander of the "Wasp," in 1819, he captured a Venezuelan sloop of war and her prize on his return to the West India station. He obtained post rank in April, 1831, and subsequently served in North America and the West Indies, until he went on half-pay in March, 1842. In August, 1852, he was appointed captain of the "Britannia," 120, flag-ship of Vice-Admiral J. W. D. Dundas, in the Mediterranean, in which he served during the Crimean War. In recognition of his services in the Mediterranean he was, in July, 1855, nominated a Companion of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, and in January last year was granted a flag officer's Greenwich Hospital pension. He obtained his first commission as lieutenant on April 18, 1806; commander, July 14, 1815; captain April 25, 1831; rear-admiral (retired), Jan. 31, 1856; vice-admiral, Feb. 6, 1863; and admiral, Nov. 20, 1866.

SIR SYDNEY COTTON, G.C.B.

Lieut.-Gen Sir Sydney Cotton, G.C.B., Governor of Chelsea Hospital, the son of Mr H. C. Cotton, and a cousin of the late Lord Combermere, was born in 1791, and entered the army in 1810. He served in command of a squadron of the 22nd Light Dragoons in Madras, with a force operating for the suppression of the Pindaroes in 1817, and again in 1842 and 1843 in Scinde, under Sir Charles Napier, where he greatly distinguished himself. He undertook two successful expeditions

against some warlike hill tribes beyond the Peshawur border, and a body of Hindustanee fanatics who had taken up a position on these hills, threatening the British frontier. In 1854 he commanded the 22nd Regiment against the Affreedees in the Bori country. Having attained the rank of major-general, he served during the Indian mutiny, and for his valuable services was created a K C B, and received the thanks of the Indian Government. Her Majesty awarded him the annuity conferred on officers for distinguished and meritorious services. He died on Feb. 20.

SIR GASPARD LE MARCHANT.

The death of this gallant officer happened on Feb. 6, at the age of seventy years. He was the youngest son of the late Major-General Le Marchant (who fell at the battle of Salamanca in command of the heavy cavalry), by a daughter of the late Major-General John Carey, of Guernsey. He was born in the year 1803, and was educated at the Royal Military College at Sandhurst. He entered the army at an early age, and saw active service in several parts of the world in the 85th Regiment of Foot. He afterwards served with much distinction in Spain under Sir De Lacy Evans in the British Auxiliary Legion. He held the Governorship of Newfoundland from 1847 to 1852, and the Governorship of Nova Scotia from 1852 to 1857. He was for seven years after this date Governor of Malta, and was appointed Commander-in-Chief at Madras in 1865. At his death he was a general in the army, and colonel of the 11th Regiment of Foot. He had also received the decorations of several foreign orders. Sir J. Gaspard Le Marchant was a younger brother of Sir Denis Le Marchant, formerly Chief Clerk of the House of Commons.

MR. HERMAN MERVIVALE, C.B.

On Feb. 8, Mr. Mervivale, Under Secretary for India, died at his house in Cornwall Gardens, South Kensington. Mr. Mervivale was born in 1806. He was the eldest son of J. H. Mervivale, Esq., a late Commissioner of Bankruptcy, and author of various poems and translations. After a very distinguished career at Harrow and Oxford, he was called to the Common Law Bar in 1831. A few years afterwards he was appointed to the Professorship of Political Economy,

founded by Mr. Henry Drummond at Oxford. Here he delivered a series of lectures on "Colonisation and Colonies," which he published when his professional term was over, and which led to his selection by Lord Grey to fill the office of Assistant Under Secretary for the Colonies in 1847. He soon afterwards attained the position of Chief Permanent Under Secretary for that department, and fulfilled its duties with great ability for twelve years. In 1860 he was, at the earnest request of Sir Charles Wood, appointed Permanent Under Secretary at the India Office, where his remaining official years were spent. Mr. Mervivale had a strong taste for literature, to which he made some contributions of considerable value. Such were his continuation of Mr. Parkes's "Life of Sir Philip Francis," and his continuation of the "Life of Sir Henry Lawrence," begun by Sir Herbert Edwards. His lectures on "Colonisation" were republished by him on quitting the Colonial Office. Besides these works, he published, in 1868, an interesting volume of "Historical Studies," being a selection of essays and criticisms, furnished at different times to some of the leading periodicals. For he was a regular and frequent contributor to the *Edinburgh Review* some forty years, his contributions to which are characterised by great tact and insight, as well as by a graceful and lucid style. Mr. Mervivale's knowledge was wide and varied. He was deeply versed in the science of political economy, and his speeches at the meetings of the Political Economy Club were master-pieces of argument. His legal opinion was highly esteemed. To the last he kept up a strong interest in the profession to which he was brought up, and was gratified at attaining the rank of Benchers of the Middle Temple a few years before his death. Mr. Mervivale married, in 1834, Caroline Penelope, daughter of the Rev. William Villiers Robinson, Rector of Grafton, and sister of the late Sir George Stamp Robinson, Bart., by whom he left two surviving children.

M. MICHELET.

M. Jules Michelet, the eminent historian, was born at Paris in 1798, and was consequently in his seventy-sixth year. He early distinguished himself as a student of history, and in 1821, after a severe competition, was appointed Professor of History of the Collège Rollin, where he also taught the ancient languages and philosophy until 1826. In

the same year he published the "Tableaux Synchroniques de l'Histoire Moderne," his first work, and afterwards his translation of "Vico." After the Revolution of 1830, he was made chief of the historical section of the National Archives. At the same time he was selected by M. Guizot to supply his place at the Sorbonne, and King Louis Philippe appointed him professor of History to the Princess Clementine. He published at this period the first volume of his "Histoire de France," and then other historical works; and in 1838 became Professor of History at the College of France, besides being elected a member of the Academy of Moral Science. His democratic views and his hostility to the Jesuits excited much attention, and aroused against him considerable animosity. He afterwards published these views in a series of works, which were very widely read. In 1847 appeared the first volume of his "Histoire de la Révolution." M. Michelet continued his lectures at the College of France until 1851, when they were stopped by Government. After the *coup d'état* he refused to take the oath, and gave up his post in the Archives. The list of his works is a long one, and presents a very varied range of subjects. He was, moreover, a frequent contributor to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and other periodicals.

MR. JOHN PYE.

By the death, on the 6th inst., of Mr. John Pye, at the advanced age of ninety-two, we have lost one of the foremost landscape engravers of his time, and one who, in other respects, will occupy a prominent position in the history of British art. At an early age, Pye became a skilful draughtsman. He left Birmingham, his native town, at eighteen, and, coming to London, was apprenticed to James Heath, who turned out many of the most eminent engravers of this century. Pye remained with his master about four years, and during this time he began to develop those principles of chiaroscuro—that power of colouring, so to speak, in its elementary black and white—in which he became a master, and an acknowledged authority both with painters and engravers. He also evinced a rare faculty for interpreting atmospheric effects, which rendered him one of the most successful exponents of the works of Turner. There was much friendly intimacy between the painter and engraver, interrupted only by some peculiarities of character, if not injustice, on the one side, and natural sensitiveness on the other.

The engraving of "Pope's Villa" led to the production of the important plate from the "Temple of Jupiter in Ægina," with which Turner was so pleased that he offered to paint a companion picture expressly for engraving. Mr Pye was virtually the founder of the excellently managed self-supporting "Artists' Fund," and contributed, with his friend Mulready, to its revival in 1825, when Mulready gave the copyright of the "Wolf and the Lamb" (the engraving of which, by Mr. J. H. Robinson, realised 1,000*l.*) to the Fund. Pye lived for some time in Paris, and received the distinguished honour of being selected Corresponding Member of the French Institute. Besides a choice gallery of cabinet pictures and a fine collection of engravings, he has left behind him a mass of interesting notes on the artists of his time, particularly Turner.

BARON MEYER-DE ROTHSCHILD

Baron Meyer Amschel de Rothschild died on Feb. 6. He was a younger brother of Baron Lionel de Rothschild, late M.P. for the City of London, and of Sir Anthony Rothschild, Bart (also a Baron of the Austrian Empire), who was some time M.P. for Aylesbury. Their father was Baron Nathan Meyer de Rothschild, of Frankfurt, who was the founder of the great London banking house which is conducted by these brothers. The late Baron Meyer Amschel de Rothschild was in the fifty-sixth year of his age. He had sat in Parliament for Hythe since 1859. His country house at Mentmore, in Buckinghamshire, was famous for its collection of works of art. He was also an enterprising patron of horse-racing, and won the Derby, the Oaks, and the St Leger in the same year.

SIR F. P. SMITH.

Sir Francis Pettit Smith, Kt., the first practical introducer of the screw-propeller into the Royal Navy and Mercantile Service, died on the 12th inst., at 15, Thurloe Place, South Kensington, aged sixty-six. Originally a grazing farmer, he developed the system of screw-propulsion, and for his services to the Navy Her Majesty, in 1855, granted him an annual pension from the Civil List of 200*l.*, and in 1871 conferred upon him the honour of knighthood. In 1857 a national subscription was made for a testimonial to Mr. Smith, and a service of plate and 2,678*l.* were presented

to him at a public banquet at St. James's Hall. Since 1860 he was Curator of the Patent Office Museum, South Kensington.

SIR E. F. SCUDAMORE-STANHOPE,
BART.

Sir Edwyn Francis Scudamore-Stanhope, second Baronet, of Holme Lacy, in the county of Hereford, Captain R.N., and heir presumptive to the earldom of Chesterfield, died on the 8th inst. He was born Dec. 15, 1793, the only son of Admiral Sir Henry Edwyn Stanhope. Sir Edwyn saw some service in the Navy. He was midshipman of the "Surveillante" in 1810, lieutenant of the "Castor" in 1813 and 1814, and was made commander in the latter year. In 1851 he became a captain on the retired list. Sir Edwyn succeeded to the title at the decease of his father, Dec. 14, 1814, and, having inherited, at the demise of Frances, Duchess of Norfolk, the Holme Lacy estate of the Scudamores, assumed, in 1826, the additional surname and arms of Scudamore. He married Mary, daughter of Thomas Dowell, Esq., of Parker's Well, Devon, and left, with other issue, a son and successor, the present Sir Henry Edwyn Chandos Scudamore-Stanhope, third Baronet. Sir Edwyn served as High Sheriff of Herefordshire in 1843.

DR. STRAUSS.

Dr. David Friedrich Strauss, the famous German scholar and critic, died on Feb. 8 in his native town of Ludwigsburg, in Wurtemberg, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. Strauss was originally trained for the ministry of the Evangelical Church, and having been educated at Blaubeuren and Tubingen, was ordained in his twenty-second year, and obtained professorships first at Heilbronn and subsequently at Tubingen. In 1835 he published his "Life of Jesus Critically Examined," a book which aroused more controversy than any work of modern times. The object of the writer was to find a new mode of regarding Christian history, and to account for the origin of the Christian faith in the absence of any belief in the supernatural. There is no need that we should describe a book which a generation since was very generally read, and was repeatedly answered and attacked. The work was translated into every European language. It is hardly

too much to say that the "Life of Jesus" produced, in a few years, a literature of its own. Most theologians replied to it, nearly all preachers preached about it; it was the theme of general talk, and aroused everywhere the most angry discussions. In 1839 Dr. Strauss was appointed Professor of Dogmatics and Church History in the University of Zurich. The appointment roused great opposition, but he maintained his position for a while, and wrote an historical work on the development of Christian doctrine. Being eventually driven from the professorate, he turned his attention during the stormy period which culminated in 1848 to politics. He had prepared a new edition of the "Life of Jesus," and in 1872 gave to the world what he regarded as the fullest expression of his theological views, the work entitled the "Old Faith and the New."

March.

DR. NEIL ARNOTT, F.R.S.

Dr. Neil Arnott, who was born about 1788, received his early education at the Grammar School at Aberdeen, and afterwards entered the University to study for the medical profession. Having graduated M.A., he came to England, and was appointed a surgeon in the East India Company's naval service. In 1811 he commenced practice in London, and was soon after appointed physician to the French and Spanish Embassies. In 1827 he published, under the title of 'Elements of Physics,' the substance of a series of lectures on Natural Philosophy and its bearings on his profession, which has reached a seventh edition, and has been translated into several European languages. Dr. Arnott was a member of the Senate of the London University, and his name is well known in connection with the "Arnott stove" (which obtained the Rumford medal from the Royal Society in 1854), and other useful inventions, such as the water-bed, &c., which bear his name. In 1869 he gave to each of the Universities of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and St. Andrew's a donation of 1,000*l.*, for the promotion of the study of experimental physics among the medical students. He also placed at the disposal of the Senate of the University of London 2,000*l.* to found a scientific scholarship. Dr. Arnott died on the 2nd of this month.

MAJOR BAIRD.

One of the most lamented deaths among the officers of Sir Garnet Wolseley's little army in the Ashantee War was that of Major William Arthur Baird, of the 42nd Highlanders. He died on board the hospital-ship "Victor Emmanuel," at Sierra Leone, on March 5, from a disease contracted some time ago, but complicated with other disorders caused by the West African climate. He had also been weakened by the effects of a wound at the battle of Amoafu on Jan 31. Major Baird served in the Crimea from July, 1854, through the siege of Sebastopol, for which he received the medal, with clasp. He served also in the campaign of 1857 and 1858, against the mutineers in India, including the actions of Kudjunge and Shurushabad, the siege and capture of Lucknow, the attack on the fort of Roshea, the action at Allypung, and the attack and capture of Bareilly, again receiving a medal, with clasps.

MR. S. BALL.

Samuel Ball, Esq., died in his ninety-fourth year, at Sion House, Wolverley, Worcestershire, where he had lived in retirement for the last twenty-five years. His name deserves to be remembered as one to whom the country is indebted. He was for many years a member of the East India Company's establishment at Canton, and, though China and most sources of information respecting it were at that time closed to Europeans, his extraordinary industry gained him much and minute information as to the geography of the tea districts and their trade routes; and in 1817, in a printed paper of great detail, he showed the directors of the East India Company that Foo-Chow was the natural harbour of export for the black teas, and urged the opening of that port. The directors declined to move, and the matter slept. In 1842, when Sir Henry Pottinger was sent to stipulate for new ports of trade, there was almost entire ignorance which to choose, and the Chinese rendered no assistance. Mr. Ball's facts and papers were gratefully accepted by Sir Henry Pottinger, Foo-Chow was opened, and its annual export of black teas alone is now little short of ninety millions of pounds. With the same diligence Mr. Ball inquired, under similar difficulties, into the Chinese modes of culture and manufacture of tea, and published, in 1848, a most able scientific and practical work on that subject, which is to this day

a standard book with the growers of tea in our Eastern possessions.

SIR W. H. BODKIN.

Sir William Henry Bodkin, late Assistant Judge of the Middlesex Sessions, a Deputy Lieutenant for Middlesex, who died on the 26th, at his residence, West Hill, Highgate, in his eighty-third year, was the eldest son of Mr Peter Bodkin, of Galway. Adopting the legal profession, he was called to the Bar in 1826, and, joining the Home Circuit, soon obtained considerable practice at the Middlesex, Westminster, and Kent Sessions, as well as at the Central Criminal Court. In the words of Mr. Sergeant Cox, "Sir William Bodkin was an admirable Judge and a most excellent man, tempering justice with mercy and combining kindness with firmness." As a criminal lawyer he was highly considered. In 1841 he was elected M.P. for Rochester in the Conservative interest, and sat until the dissolution in 1847. In 1858 he was chosen a Benchet of Gray's Inn, in 1859 appointed Assistant Judge of the Middlesex Sessions, and in 1867 knighted. Sir William published a pamphlet on "Poor Laws."

SIR W. H. ELLIOTT.

Sir William Henry Elliott, G.C.B., K.H., Colonel of the 51st Regiment, died, on the 27th ult., at his residence, 20 Cambridge Square, in his eighty-second year. The son of Captain John Elliott, R.N., one of Captain Cook's companions in the circumnavigation of the globe, young Elliott entered the army, in the 51st Regiment, in 1809, and attained the rank of General in 1871. During the long and eventful interval he saw much service and gained much distinction. He had the Peninsular medal, with five clasps, for the part he took in the campaigns of 1812, 1813, and 1814, was decorated with the Waterloo medal for his share in the decisive battle of Waterloo, and received the Burmese medal and clasp, and on two occasions the thanks of the Governor-General of India in Council, for his services in the second Burmese war, in which he commanded the Madras Brigade.

HON. G. W. FITZWILLIAM.

The Hon. George Wentworth Fitzwilliam, second son of the late Earl Fitzwilliam, and master of the Fitzwilliam

Hounds, died at his residence, Milton Hall, Peterborough, on March 4, from the effects of a recent fall from his horse while hunting. Erysipelas having set in, Sir James Paget was sent for, and under his skilful treatment the patient rallied for a short time, but he soon relapsed. Mr. Fitzwilliam was born May 3, 1817, and married March 18, 1865, Alice Lousa, daughter of the late Major-Gen Hon. George Anson, and sister of the Marchioness of Bistol. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and was captain of the 6th Northampton Rifle Volunteers, having been previously captain of the West York Yeomanry Cavalry. He had served the office of high sheriff of Northampton in 1866, and was M.P. for Richmond from February to July 1841, and for Peterborough from 1841 to 1859.

MAJOR-GENERAL SPOTTISWOODE

This gallant officer, who died on March 23, entered the Bengal army in 1824, and during his career saw a good deal of active service. In 1826 he was one of the "forlorn hope" which led the assault at the siege of Bhurtpore, and received the personal thanks of Lord Combermere for his gallantry on that occasion (medal and clasp). In 1838, while on the staff employ, he volunteered and obtained permission to join his regiment when ordered to Afghanistan, and served with it at the forcing of the Bolan Pass and the advance through the Shaul Valley to Cabul, where he was for six days almost constantly under fire (medal). From 1839 to 1853 he was employed in the stud at Hanpur, where his management was personally approved by Lord Auckland, and where his hospitality was nearly proverbial. In 1856, after a short furlough in England, he took command of his old regiment, the 37th Bengal N. I., and was with it at Benares when the mutiny broke out. His regiment joined the mutineers, and Lieut-Col. Spottiswoode took a distinguished part in its suppression, on one occasion particularly, when accompanied by only his sergeant-major and a native groom, who was killed by his side, he set fire to the lines in which the men had taken refuge, and under cover of which they had kept up a heavy fire, and thus drove them into the open, but not until sixty of their number had perished in the flames. For this service the sergeant-major, at the instance of Lieut-Col. Spottiswoode, received the Victoria Cross, and General Neill, who was in command, promised to recommend Col. Spottiswoode

himself for the same distinction, of which he was equally worthy, but the death of the gallant General soon afterwards, at Lucknow, prevented this promise from being fulfilled. Col Spottiswoode also, with a party, rescued the ladies of the station from imminent danger and saved the treasure (medal). General Spottiswoode retired from the army in 1861, and his death occurred at Hastings, where he had gone in the hope of restoring his health, which had been failing for some time.

MR CHARLES SUMNER.

Mr Charles Sumner, the well known American statesman, whose death took place on March 11, was born at Boston on Jan 6, 1811, and had consequently just completed his sixty-third year. He graduated at Harvard in 1830, studied the law under Mr Justice Story, and was admitted to the Bar in 1834. After acting as reporter of the Circuit Court of the United States, and editing a law journal, he spent three years in Europe, one of which was passed in England. On returning to Boston, in 1840, he resumed practice, and soon after began to take a prominent part in political affairs as an anti-slavery advocate. In 1850 he was elected a Senator, and one of his first speeches was directed against the fugitive slave law. It was in 1856, after the publication of his speech upon Kansas, that he was savagely beaten with a heavy cane by Preston S. Brooks, a Southern member of Congress, and was so severely injured that it was three years before he recovered. He was re-elected to the Senate in 1857. During, as before the war, he was opposed to all concessions to slavery. From 1861 to 1871 he was chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations in the Senate. During the Alabama controversy he expressed himself very strongly in support of the claims made by the United States against this country. Mr. Sumner was the author of many legal works, and his speeches have been collected and published in four volumes.

MR. ALBERT WAY.

Albert Way, Esq., M.A., F.S.A., of Wonham Manor, in the county of Surrey, formerly director of the Society of Antiquaries, and founder of the Archaeological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland, died at Cannes on March 22, in his sixty-ninth year. This accomplished and very learned archaeologist was the only son of the

late Rev. Lewis Way, of Stanstead Park, Sussex, and grandson of Benjamin Way, Esq., F.R.S., F.A.S., of Denham Place, Bucks, president of Guy's Hospital, and sub-governor of the South Sea Company. The father of Mr. Albert Way, Mr. Lewis Way, originally a barrister, but subsequently a clergyman, by a curious freak of fortune, forming a very interesting chapter of family romance, too long to be narrated in our confined space, acquired a very considerable property, a great part of which he devoted to the conversion of the Jews and various works of philanthropy. One of these, the Marbœuf Chapel at Paris, completed by Mr. Albert Way, remains a permanent memorial. Mr. Way married, April 30, 1844, the Hon. Emmeline Stanley, daughter of the late Lord Stanley of Alderley, and left one daughter.

DR FORBES WINSLOW.

Dr Forbes Winslow, who died at Brighton, on March 3, was the youngest son of Capt Thomas Winslow, of the 47th Regiment, and was born in London in Aug. 1810, educated in Scotland, and afterwards at a private school near Manchester. He commenced his professional studies in New York, and continued them on his return to England, especially anatomy, surgery, and physiology, and afterwards at the University of London. After passing the College of Surgeons in 1835, he graduated M.D. at Aberdeen, and was soon afterwards elected an Honorary Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh. Whilst acting as Vice-President of the Medical Society of London, he was appointed Lettsoman Professor of Medicine for 1851-2. Subsequently he was elected President of the Medical Society of London, a position he occupied for a year. Dr. Winslow's aptitude for the investigation of diseases of the mind was early developed. When a medical student he joined the Westminster Medical Society, and in 1830 read to its members an elaborate paper on the "Influence of the Mind upon the Body in the Production and Aggravation of Disease." He published, soon after entering the profession, a work in two 8vo. vols., entitled "Physic and Physicians," a biographical and literary history of the medical world from the earliest period, and several other works on mental disease. He originated the *Journal of Psychological Medicine*, published quarterly, which he edited for sixteen years. At the installation of the late Earl of Derby as Chancellor of the University of Oxford, Dr. Winslow, with several other

distinguished men, received the honorary degree of D.C.L. He was a member of the Royal College of Physicians of London, and, on the establishment of the Juridical Society, he was elected one of the Vice-Presidents.

April.

LIEUT.-GENERAL BIRD.

The death of Lieut-Gen Louis Saunders Bird, of the Bengal Army, took place at Clevedon, Somerset, on April 14, in his eighty-second year. This officer entered the military service of the East India Company, on their Bengal Establishment, in 1088, and saw considerable active service in the East, having served at the capture of the island of Mauritius in 1810. He was next engaged with the column under the command of Sir David Ochterlony during the Nepaul campaign of 1816, and with the force under Brigadier Nation in Oude in 1816-17, receiving the India medal for his services. He also served during the war against the Pindarrees from 1817 to 1819, and during the campaign in Bundelcund in 1821, likewise in Hurrannah from 1824 to 1825, and against the Coles in 1832-33. Some years later, in 1845-46, he took part in the campaign on the Sutlej, including the battles of Moodkee, Ferozeshuhur, Buddiwal, and Aliwal. For his services in this campaign he received a medal with two clasps, and was awarded the brevet rank of lieutenant-colonel. In 1855-56 he commanded the Sonthal Brigade during the insurrection of the Sonthals, which was quelled the year before the great Bengal mutiny.

THE MARQUIS OF CLANRICARDE.

Ulrick John de Burg, Marquis and Earl of Clanricarde, Viscount Burke, and Baron Dunkell in, in the Peerage of Ireland, and Baron Somerhill in the Peerage of the United Kingdom, Lieutenant of the county of Galway, Hon. Colonel of the Galway Militia, and Vice-Admiral of the Coast of Connaught, a Knight of St. Patrick, and a member of the Privy Council, died at his residence, Stratton-street, Piccadilly, on the 10th inst. His Lordship, who was born Dec. 20, 1802, the only son of John Thomas, thirteenth Earl of Clanricarde, by Elizabeth, his wife, daughter of Sir Thomas Burke, Bart., of Marble Hill, represented one of the most ancient, dis-

tinguished, and historic of the Anglo-Norman families in Ireland. From 1826 to 1827 he was Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, in 1830 he received the appointment of Captain of the Yeoman of the Guard, from 1838 to 1841 was accredited Ambassador at St Petersburg, from 1846 to 1852 filled the office of Postmaster-General, and from 1857 to 1858 that of Lord Privy Seal. He succeeded his father as fourteenth Earl of Clanricarde July 27, 1808, was created an Irish Marquis Oct 6, 1825; and became a peer of the United Kingdom, as Baron Somerhill, by patent dated June, 1826. His Lordship married, April 4, 1825, Harriet, only daughter of the Right Hon George Canning, and sister of the late Earl Canning, and was succeeded by his only surviving son, Herbert De Burg-Canning.

MR. OWEN JONES.

This eminent professor of decorative art died on April 19, after a long and painful illness. Mr Owen Jones, who was born in Wales in 1809, early showed a talent for art, and became a pupil of Mr Lewis Vulhamy, the architectural designer and decorator. After studying under him, Mr Jones made a tour of four years in Egypt and the Levant. In 1834 he was in Spain, where he made a thorough examination and study of the Alhambra. He then began, with M Goury, a French artist and antiquary, a work of great value upon this subject, entitled "Plans, Elevations, Sections, and Details of the Alhambra," with an historical notice by M. Pascual de Gayangos; the publication was completed in 1845. The work was carried on, after the death of M Goury, by Mr. Owen Jones, who devoted himself to the task not only of drawing the details, but of printing in colours the plates when they were prepared. In 1842 appeared "Designs for Mosaic and Tesselated Pavements." In 1846 the "Polychromatic Ornament of Italy" was issued, comprising examples of frescoes and decorative works of the sixteenth century. Mr. Jones had prepared a plan for the decoration of the pavements of the Houses of Parliament, which attracted great attention. His knowledge and activity were shown in many ways. He was appointed a superintendent of the works for the Great Exhibition, 1851, and took part in the decoration and arrangement of the building. The principles of decorative design associated with his name were comprehensively declared in an essay, entitled an "Attempt to Define the Principles which Regulate the Employment of

Colour in Decorative Arts," 1852. He brought the principles thus described before the public in lectures delivered at various places, and became the chief authority in works of the kind. In 1852 he was appointed director for the decoration of the Crystal Palace, and, with Sir D Wyatt, visited most of the fine examples of ancient decoration on the Continent. In the course of these journeys the greater part of the casts and other reproductions in the Crystal Palace were collected. He designed the decorations for the Egyptian, Greek, Roman, and Alhambra Courts in the palace, and superintended the decoration of the whole building. These works caused much controversy, and the artist published an "Apology" for what he had produced. These tasks occupied about three years. In conjunction with Messrs. G Scharf and J Bonomi, he produced handbooks to the Egyptian, Greek, and Roman Courts at Sydenham. The Alhambra Court, on which he wrote the handbook, is, as might be expected, his masterpiece. Besides the works above named, he produced, in 1847, a second edition of the "Alhambra," with 101 plates. In 1856 his elaborate "Grammar of Ornament" was issued, it still remains a textbook of examples. In 1864 came "1001 Initial Letters," and in the same year "702 Monograms." Mr. Jones's last important publication was "Examples of Chinese Ornament," 1867.

MR. LUCAS.

Mr. John Lucas, the well-known and successful portrait painter, was born in London on July 4, 1807, and commenced his professional career as an engraver. He soon abandoned that occupation, and, after studying for some time at the Clipsestone Street Academy, where he was a fellow pupil of Etty, he devoted his attention exclusively to portrait painting. During a long career he painted many portraits of members of the Royal family and of the aristocracy, and of several of the most distinguished men of his time. Among his works were portraits of the Duke of Wellington, painted for the University of Oxford, the King of Hanover, Prince Metternich, and the Prussian and Austrian armies of the Prince Consort, for Versailles and the Palace of Saxe Coburg, of Mr Gladstone and others, for the gallery of the late Sir Robert Peel; of Lord Palmerston, Earl Stanhope, Joseph Hume, and George Stephenson. One of his most elaborate pictures was a portrait group representing the consultation of Robert Stephen

son, Brunel, Bidder, Locke, and other eminent engineers, previous to the floating of the last tube of the bridge over the Menai Straits. Upwards of sixty of his works have been engraved. He died at his house in London on April 30.

LIUT.-COLONEL JAMES MAXWELL, C.B.

James Maxwell. Lieut.-Colonel in the Army, formerly of the 34th and lately of the 1st West India Regiments, actively engaged in the recent campaign in Ashantee, died on April 14, on the homeward voyage from Cape Coast Castle, from the effects of fever contracted during the war. This gallant officer had seen more than thirty-two years' service. He entered the Army in 1841, was with his regiment, the 34th, in the Crimea, and received a severe wound in the trenches before Sebastopol. In 1859 he was, as Major of the 34th, in the campaigns in India, at Cawnpore, Lucknow, Azimghur, and Bootwul, in 1864 he attained the rank of Lieut.-Colonel, and in 1873, being then Lieut.-Colonel of the 1st West India Regiment, he joined the force under Sir Garnet Wolseley. At Sir Garnet's departure Colonel Maxwell was appointed Acting-Governor at Cape Coast, but he had to quit his post on account of the illness which terminated his life. He was made C.B. a fortnight before his death. He had also a medal with clasps for the Crimea, the Turkish medal and the fifth class of the Medjidie, and also the Indian medal and clasp.

MR. THOMAS MORSON.

Mr. Thomas Newborn Robert Morson, who was eminent as a scientific and practical chemist, died at his house in Queen Square, Bloomsbury, aged seventy-five. He was born at Stratford-le-Bow, and was apprenticed to an apothecary in Fleet Market, but the study of chemical science, in which he had the companionship of Faraday to assist and to improve his early efforts, proved more attractive to Morson than the medical profession. In the establishment of M. Planché, a pharmacist at Paris, he acquired a high degree of knowledge and skill. On his return to London he succeeded to a business as chemist and druggist in Farringdon Street, where he carried on, with his ordinary trade, experimental researches and inventions of different useful kinds. The first sulphate of quinine made in England

and the first morphia were produced in Mr. Morson's laboratory. He was also the inventor of a medicine called "Pepsine," designed to aid the nutritive processes for the assimilation of food in cases of diseased spleen and other disorders of the digestive organs. From Farringdon Street he removed, after his marriage, to Southampton Row, Bloomsbury, and some time later established a manufactory in Hornsey Road. He was a leading member of the Pharmaceutical Society, holding the office of vice-president during four years, and that of president during two or three other years till 1870 he was a member of the council. He enjoyed the personal acquaintance and esteem of many distinguished men of science in France and Germany as well as in this country.

PROFESSOR PHILLIPS, F.R.S.

The death of this eminent man of science was occasioned by a fall on the staircase at All Souls' College, Oxford, on the 24th of this month. John Phillips became a geologist under the guidance of his uncle, Mr. William Smith, one of the first founders of English geology. From 1815 to 1824 he was employed with William Smith in mapping the strata of England and Wales, and in minutely noting their structure through twenty shires. He appeared as a lecturer in London while holding the appointment of keeper of the museum of the Yorkshire Philosophical Society. In 1831, at York, and in 1832, at Oxford, he took an active part in the meetings of the British Association. This he continued to do in subsequent years, as one of the official secretaries, assisting in the editorship of twenty-five volumes, at least, of its proceedings. He occupied the chair of geology at King's College, London, and in the University of Dublin. Among his best known works we may mention his "Guide to Geology," his "Palæozoic Fossils of Cornwall, Devon, and West Somersetshire," his "Geology of the Neighbourhood of Oxford," his "Mémorial of William Smith," his "Life on the Earth," and the "Treatise on Geology," which occupies two volumes of the well-known "Cabinet Cyclopædia" of Dr. Lardner. He was also the contributor of very many geological and other scientific articles to at least three most comprehensive cyclopædias, and he published very useful geological maps of Yorkshire and of the British Isles. In 1858-9 he held the presidential chair of the Geological Society. When illness forbade Dean Buckland to continue his geological lec-

tures at Oxford, the late Mr Strickland was appointed deputy reader, or professor of that science, in that University. On his death, twenty years ago, Professor Phillips succeeded to that office, and on the demise of Dr Buckland he succeeded to the vacant chair. He was learned in physics, astronomy, zoology, and most of the natural sciences. At the time of his death he was seventy-three years of age.

REV H WOODGATE.

The Rev Henry Arthur Woodgate, B.D., rector of Belbroughton-with-Fairfield, Worcestershire, and honorary canon of Worcester, graduated at St. John's College, Oxford, in 1821, taking a first-class in *Literis Humanioribus*, and subsequently becoming fellow and tutor of his college. He was ordained in 1824, and in 1837 he was appointed to the college living of Belbroughton, which is worth 1,250*l.*, with house, and thirty-four acres of glebe. From 1836 to 1838, and again in 1865 and 1866, Mr Woodgate was select preacher to the University, where also he was Public Examiner in 1827 and 1828, and Bampton Lecturer in 1838. He was also Proctor in Convocation for the clergy of Worcester diocese, having represented them in that body for upwards of thirty years. Mr Woodgate, who died at his rectory-house on April 24, would, if he had lived a day longer, have reached his seventy-third birthday, and he had been fifty years in orders. In addition to his academic distinctions, he was well known by his contributions to theological literature.

SURGEON-MAJOR WYATT, C.B.

Mr. John Wyatt, C.B., the well-known surgeon-major of the Coldstream Guards, died on April 2, at Bournemouth, after a long illness. Mr Wyatt, who became so favourably known to the public by his active exertions for the relief of distress during the recent bombardment of Paris, was the eldest son of the late Mr. James Wyatt, of Lidsay, Sussex. He entered the army medical service in June 1841, as assistant-surgeon, became surgeon April 9, 1857, and surgeon-major Jan. 9, 1863. On the outbreak of hostilities in the East, in 1854, he embarked with the 1st battalion of the Coldstream Guards, and was employed with it in Turkey and the Crimea, until the close of the campaign, during which he was present at the bat-

ties of the Alma, Balaclava, and Inkerman, and at the siege and fall of Sebastopol. At Inkerman his horse was shot under him. At the close of the war he received the Crimean medal and four clasps, the knighthood of the Legion of Honour, and the Turkish medal. During the recent Franco-German war, Mr. Wyatt, having been selected by the War Department to proceed, as medical commissioner, to the head-quarters of the French army, was in Paris during the whole of the siege and bombardment by the Germans, and was present at the principal sorties of the beleaguered army and the consequent battles, rendering important service to the wounded; for which, besides being elected a member of the Council of the *Société de Secours aux Blessés*, and of the *Ambulances de la Presse*, he was promoted to the rank of an officer in the Legion of Honour. He was made a C.B. last year.

May.

SIR EDMUND BECKETT, BART

Sir Edmund Beckett, Bart., of Somerby Park, Lincolnshire, died at Grimsby, near Doncaster, on May 24, at the age of eighty-seven years. Sir Edmund was the sixth son of Sir John Beckett, the first baronet, was born at Gledhow Hall, Leeds, on Jan. 29, 1787, and married on Dec. 14, 1814, Maria, daughter of William Beverley, Esq., of Beverley, in Yorkshire. In 1816, on inheriting, through his wife, the property of Lady Denison, he assumed that name by Royal licence, in addition to his patronymic, and was known as Mr. Edmund Beckett Denison till within the last two years, resuming his patronymic in 1872, in accordance with the will of his brother, Sir Thomas Beckett, whom he succeeded in the baronetcy in that year. He sat in the House of Commons as member for the West Riding of Yorkshire from July 1841 to July 1847, and was again returned in Dec. 1848, retaining his seat till May 1859, when he resigned. He was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for the East and West Ridings of Yorkshire, and held the position of chairman of the Great Northern Railway Company from 1847 to 1865. Sir Edmund Beckett had several children, his eldest son, who succeeds him in the title as fifth baronet, being Mr. Edmund Beckett Denison, Q.C.

VICE-ADMIRAL CURRIE.

Vice-Admiral Mark John Currie died at his residence, Collington House, Thicket Road, Anerley, on May 1, in his seventy-ninth year. This officer entered the navy in 1808 on board the "Warspite," 74, (Capt. the Hon. Henry Blackwood, and, after serving on the Home and Mediterranean stations, removed into the "Niobe," 38, and cruised for some months off the coasts of Portugal and Spain. He became lieutenant in 1814, and in the "Centaur," 74, visited the Cape of Good Hope. He next served in the "Rivoli," 74, at Portsmouth, the "Racehorse," 18, in the Mediterranean, the "Nimrod," at Leith, the "Satellite," Capt. Armar Lowry Corry, and as flag-lieutenant in the "Leander," 50, flagship of Sir Henry Blackwood, on the East India station. He there assumed command, in 1823, of his former sloop the "Satellite," and shortly afterwards was appointed acting captain of the "Asia," 84. He brought home this ship under very peculiar and trying circumstances, and in a way that saved the Government considerable expense. He was not, however, confirmed in post rank until Nov. 23, 1841. Admiral Currie officiated in 1827-28 as secretary to Sir H. Blackwood, then commander-in-chief at the Nore, and from 1829 to 1832 fulfilled the duties of colonial auditor and secretary of the Executive and Legislative Councils of Western Australia, and received the thanks of the governor, Sir James Stirling. He was secretary to Rear-Admiral Stirling from Jan. 1854 to the spring of 1856, in the East Indies. He became rear-admiral on the reserved list in 1862, and vice-admiral in 1867.

SIR JAMES MACPHERSON, K.C.B.

Major-General Sir James Duncan Macpherson (of Aidersier), K.C.B., of the Bengal Army, died at his residence in Belsize Park Gardens, London, on May 29, at the age of sixty-three years. This officer was the son of Lieut.-Col. Duncan Macpherson, of the 78th Highlanders. He was educated at King's College, Aberdeen, and at the age of seventeen he was appointed to a cadetship in the Bengal Army, the following being the dates of his several commissions:—Ensign, Dec. 4, 1828, lieutenant, Nov. 26, 1836; brevet-captain, Dec. 4, 1843, captain, Nov. 1, 1848; brevet-major, June 7, 1849, brevet lieutenant-colonel, Nov. 28, 1854; regimental major, Dec. 1, 1855; brevet-colonel, April 5,

1858; regimental lieutenant-colonel, Aug. 4, 1859; and major-general, Jan. 24, 1867. He originally belonged to the 22nd Bengal N.I., but was afterwards transferred to the 6th European Regiment of that presidency. During the Punjab campaign of 1848-49 he served as brigade-major, and was present at the battles of Chillianwallah and Goojerat, being rewarded with a medal, and the brevet rank of major. From 1852 to 1858 he was military secretary to the Government of the Punjab, and during his tenure of office the siege of Delhi, chiefly carried by reinforcements from Lahore, was brought to a successful issue. He held the office of quartermaster-general in Bengal in 1858 and 1859, and was in command of the Dinapore and Agra brigades from 1862 to 1864. In the latter year he became commissary-general of the Bengal army, which office he held till 1868, vacating it in consequence of his promotion to the rank of major-general. Major-General Macpherson was nominated a C.B. in 1858, and was promoted to K.C.B. on June 24, 1873.

SIR THOMAS ROSS.

Sir Thomas Ross, Knt., of Dardistown Castle, in the county of Meath, Captain (retired list) R.N., died at Pau, France, on the 23rd inst. He was born May 5, 1797, the second son of Thomas Ross, Esq., of Rossfort, in the county of Cork, by Anne, his wife, daughter of John Attridge, Esq., of Greenmount, in the same county. He entered the Royal Navy in 1812, and was successively employed in cruising on the coasts of Norway and Denmark, on the coast of Africa, and on the Brazilian and West Indian stations. On his return he was appointed to the coastguard in the county of Kent. Subsequently he held the post of Inspecting Commander of the Coastguard in Ireland, and, in 1839, received the honour of knighthood from the late Marquis of Normanby, who was then Lord Lieutenant, for his gallant conduct in saving lives from a wreck at Malahide the previous year. He became captain on the retired list April 1, 1856. Sir Thomas married, April 29, 1835, Anna Maria, daughter of George French, Esq., Q.C., and had five children.

SIR H. S. MEYSEY-THOMPSON, BART.

Sir Harry Stephen Meysey-Thompson, Bart., who died at his seat, Kirby Hall, in

Yorkshire, on the 17th inst., was born in 1809, and went to Cambridge as a fellow commoner at Trinity, graduating in honours therein in 1832. In 1837 the Yorkshire Agricultural Society was founded mainly through his exertions, and in the following year he became an original member of the Royal Agricultural Society, in the management of which for the next thirty-five years he took a leading part, he was also for many years chairman of the *Journal* committee, and contributed largely to that publication. In 1867 he was elected president of the society. In December last, failing health compelled him to resign his post on the council. He was for some years chairman of the York and North Midland Company, and afterwards of the North-Eastern Company, and continued to fulfil the duties of this post till February this year, when he resigned his seat at the board. He also had a large share in organising the United Railway Companies' Association, which has since worked very satisfactorily in adjusting the differences between rival companies. Of this he was chairman from its first institution, till failing health compelled him to resign. He succeeded to his father's property in 1853, was high sheriff of Yorkshire in 1856, and sat in the House of Commons for Whitby between 1859 and 1865 as a Liberal, he unsuccessfully contested the Eastern Division of the West Riding in 1868, when he only lost by eighty votes. He was a justice of the peace and deputy-lieutenant, and was created a baronet in February of this present year.

M. VAN DE WEYER

The death of this accomplished Belgian gentleman, who had lived in London forty-three years, and had married an English lady, took place at his house in London on May 23. M. Sylvain Van de Weyer was seventy-two years of age. He was the son of a lawyer who held a Government office at Amsterdam, under the French Republic and Empire. In his youth he studied law at Louvain, and subsequently practised as an advocate at Brussels. He was for some time one of the editors of the *Courier des Pays-Bas*. His connection with the Belgian Revolution is part of modern European history. He was the first foreign minister of the new kingdom, and shares with King Leopold the honour which belongs to its successful consolidation. He took an active part in securing the King's election, and was, immediately after his Majesty's coronation, appointed Belgian Minister

to the Court of St. James. From 1835 to 1846 he exercised the functions of Belgian Home Minister. In 1856 he resumed his old post of ambassador in London, which he only resigned in 1867. M. Van de Weyer was married to an English lady, the daughter of Mr. Joshua Bates, of Sheen House, Surrey, and Winkfield Place, Berks, and filled a prominent place in English society for a quarter of a century.

SIR ARCHDALE WILSON, G.C.B.

Lieut-General Sir Archdale Wilson, Bart., of Delhi, G.C.B., Colonel Commandant Royal Artillery, died on the 9th inst. This gallant and distinguished soldier was born in 1803, the fifth son of the Rev. George Wilson, of Kirby Cane, Norfolk, Rector of Diddington. He entered the service of the East India Company in the Bengal Artillery in 1819, served at the siege and capture of Bhurtpore in 1825-26, commanded the Artillery as lieutenant-colonel with Brigadier Wheeler's force in the Julender Doab in 1848-49, and rose through the successive grades of regimental rank, with growing reputation, until in 1857 he found himself Brigadier Commandant of Bengal Artillery at Meerut, the headquarters of the regiment.

It was at Meerut that the distant mutterings of revolt first broke out into open thunder, and it was by a column from Meerut, under Brigadier Wilson's command, that the first victory over the mutineers in the open field was gained. On May 27, 1857, this column left Meerut to join the force moving from Umballa and the hills on Delhi. At Ghazeeooddeenuggur, on the river Hindun, between Meerut and Delhi, a brilliant and successful action was fought on May 30 between the Meerut column and the mutineers, who moved out of Delhi to attack. The fight was renewed the following day with the same result, and the junction of the Meerut column with the Delhi Field Force, then under Sir Henry Barnard, was effected on June 7 at Alipore. By the death of Sir Henry Barnard and the resignation, through ill-health, of his successor, General Reed, the command of the Delhi Field Force devolved on Sir Archdale Wilson on July 17.

Sir John Kaye, in his "History of the Sepoy War," does full justice to the great importance of the achievements of this Force under Sir Archdale Wilson. The attacking force, about the time that he succeeded to the command, did not

number more than 7,000 effectives, and, for practical purposes, might be considered unprovided with siege artillery, whilst the besieged town was supposed to be garrisoned by 30,000 fighting men, well supplied with artillery and stores. An assault was for a long time impossible, but the small besieging force under Sir Aichdale held on to its position before the city, harassed by frequent sorties of the enemy, and at a season of the year when the pernicious effects of exposure to an Indian climate are but too well-known. On Sept 4 the siege train arrived from the Punjab. Delhi was then vigorously attacked, assaulted on the 14th, and after some six days' street fighting, during which the gallant General John Nicholson fell, was occupied by our troops on Sept 20, 1857.

Sir Aichdale Wilson subsequently commanded the whole of the artillery at the siege and capture of Lucknow in 1858 under Lord Clyde. For these eminent services he was rewarded by the thanks of both Houses of Parliament, was nominated in succession a Companion, Knight Commander, and Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, was granted a pension of 1,000*l* a year by the East India Company, and was created a baronet with remainder to the heirs of his body, or, failing such issue, to the heirs male of his brother, the late Rear-Admiral George Knyvett Wilson. His successor in the baronetcy is his nephew, Rowland Knyvett Wilson, Fellow of King's College Cambridge.

June.

GENERAL ARMSTRONG.

Major-General John Armstrong, C.B., who so distinguished himself during the Kaffir war, when he raised the body of irregular cavalry known as "Armstrong's horse," died at Stoulgrove House, near Chepstow, on the 28th of this month. The gallant officer entered the service at the Cape in 1835, being then only in his sixteenth year, when he was appointed "provisional" ensign in the Cape Mounted Rifles. Since that time he was actively engaged in the numerous wars with the Kaffirs, the Amatola, and the Boers, and was severely wounded at the action with the Boers at Boem Plaas, Aug 29, 1848, on which occasion his horse was shot under him. He attained the rank of Major-

General on July 6, 1867, in which year he was nominated a Companion of the Bath.

SURGEON-GENERAL BEATSON, C.B.

Surgeon-General George Stewart Beatson, C.B., M.D., who died at Simla on June 7, was principal medical officer of her Majesty's British Forces in India, and an Honorary Physician to the Queen. Dr Beatson studied at Glasgow University, where he graduated in the Faculties of Arts and Medicine, taking the degree of M.D. in 1836, in which year he was also admitted a licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. He entered the Army Medical Department as an assistant-surgeon, in 1838, and served in Ceylon from 1839 to 1851, when he was appointed surgeon to the 51st Light Infantry, with which regiment he served throughout the second Burmese war in 1852-53, for his share in which he received a medal, with a clasp for Pegu. He was present on board the steam-frigate 'Ferooz,' belonging to the Indian navy, in the action with and destruction of the stockades in the Rangoon river, and during the three days' operations ending in the capture of the Great Dagon Pagoda. He was likewise present at the defence of Promé and repulse of the night attack by the Burmese. He also served in the Crimean war during the winter of 1854-55, being employed on the medical staff at Scutari and Smyrna, and after being promoted to the rank of deputy inspector-general in 1859, he served for eighteen months in the Ionian Islands, and then for two years in the Madras Presidency. In 1863 he became surgeon-general, and was appointed principal medical officer of the British troops in India. After the usual period of five years' service, he returned to England in 1868, and for the next three years was in medical charge of the Royal Victoria Hospital, Netley. In 1871 he returned to India a second time as principal medical officer to the British forces there, which position he occupied at the time of his death, being the second in seniority among the medical officers of the army. In the course of a career extending over thirty-six years, Dr. Beatson earned the reputation of being one of the ablest medical officers in the British service. Dr Beatson was nominated an Honorary Physician to her Majesty on March 13, 1866, and was created a Companion of the Bath in 1869.

MR. BELLEW.

Mr. John Chippendall Montesquieu Bellew, the celebrated public reader and lecturer, died on June 19, after an illness of several months' duration, contracted during his last visit to the United States. He was the grandson of John Bellew, Esq., of Castle Bellew, county Galway, cousin of the late Lord Bellew, whose daughter married Capt R. Higgin, of H.M.'s 12th Regiment, and on attaining his majority assumed his mother's maiden name, through whom in the female line he was the last descendant of the senior branch of the O'Briens, having directly descended from Tiego, second brother of Donough, fourth Earl of Thomond (commonly called "The Great Earl" in Irish history), brother of Daniel, first Viscount Clare. Mr. Bellew was born at Lancaster in 1823, and educated at the Lancaster Grammar School, and entered St. Mary's Hall, Oxford, in 1842, where he became a frequent speaker at the Union Debating Society, and in 1848 he was ordained a curate of St. Andrew's, Worcester. In 1850 he became curate of Prescot, went out to the East Indies in 1851, and was chaplain of St. John's Cathedral, Calcutta, till 1855, when he returned to England, and was appointed assistant minister of St. Philip's, Regent Street. In 1857 he was appointed to the sole charge of St. Mark's, Hamilton Terrace, Marylebone, in which office he continued until 1862, when he became incumbent of Bedford Chapel, Bloomsbury. From 1855 to 1867 Mr. Bellew was one of the most popular of London preachers, and it is said of him by the author of "Preachers and Preaching," that "no preacher of our time has greater oratorical gifts by nature, and no man has taken more pains to improve and cultivate them." For a number of years Mr. Bellew was well known throughout England as one of the most successful "Readers" of the period. The *Times* classed Mr. Charles Dickens, Fanny Kemble, and Mr. Bellew together as the "persons who, having devoted themselves to this particular art, are the chief objects of attention to the general public." While in India Mr. Bellew was editor of the *Bengal Hurkaru*. He is also understood to have been the writer of various articles, written on occasions of great public interest, in the columns of the *Morning Post*. In 1868 he retired from his duties as a clergyman, and joined the Catholic Church, to which his mother belonged. Since then he entirely devoted himself to his readings and to literature.

REAR-ADMIRAL CAMPBELL

Rear-Admiral Frederick Archibald Campbell, lately in command of the Detached Squadron, expired at his residence in Beaufort Gardens, London, on June 10, in his fifty-seventh year. The deceased officer was the son of the late Lieut-General Sir Colin Campbell, K.C.B., who was Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Ceylon from 1841 to 1847; and brother of the late Capt Arthur Wellington Campbell, one of the Sutlej heroes, who was killed by a cannon-shot on Dec. 21, 1815, while acting as aide-de-camp to Major-General Sir Harry Smith. He entered the Royal Naval College in Jan. 1830, and embarked in Jan. 1832 as a volunteer on board the "Madagascar," stationed in the Mediterranean. As lieutenant he served in various vessels in North America, the West Indies, and China. As additional of the "Cornwallis," Lieut. Campbell served in the "Driver," up the Yang-tse-Kiang river, and, off Nankin, during the latter part of the first China war. From the "Cambrian" he twice jumped overboard, and on one of these occasions had the good fortune to save the life of a boy. His gallant conduct in each instance was mentioned officially. Capt Campbell's next appointment was in 1847, to the "Esprégle," in which vessel, paid off in Feb. 1849, he was again employed on the China station. During this command he twice obtained the acknowledgments of Lord Palmerston—the first time for the manner in which he conducted a delicate and difficult mission to Nankin, and the second for affording protection to Chinese vessels against piracy. He likewise received the China medal. After attaining flag-rank, in April, 1870, his most noted service was in command of the Detached Squadron.

SIR CHARLES FOX.

This eminent civil engineer died at his house, at Blackheath, on the 14th inst. He was born at Derby in 1810, being the youngest son of Dr. Francis Fox, M.D., of that town. In his youth he was himself intended for the medical profession. But his talent lay rather in the direction of mechanical skill. He, therefore, relinquished the study of medicine, and at the age of nineteen joined Mr. Ericsson, then in business at Liverpool, to whom he was attached. He assisted Mr. Ericsson in the trial of locomotive engines at Rainhill, on the Liverpool and Manchester

Railway, in 1829. He was placed by the late Mr Robert Stephenson on the London and Birmingham Railway, then in course of construction—first at Watford, afterwards in charge of the extension works from Camden Town to Euston-Square. Upon the completion of this work he joined the late Mr Bramah in the manufacturing firm of Bramah and Fox. Some time afterwards, upon the death of Mr Bramah, he became senior partner in the firm of Fox, Henderson, and Co., of London, Smethwick, and Renfrew. Since the year 1857 he had practised in London as a civil and consulting engineer, with his two eldest sons, who continue the business under the firm of Sir Charles Fox and Sons. During the forty-five years of his professional life Sir Charles was engaged in works of magnitude in all parts of the world. He was the inventor of Fox's safety-switch, and contributed to the improvement of the permanent way and fittings of railways, and of all ironwork construction. His chief work was the building in Hyde Park for the Exhibition of 1851. The late Sir Joseph Paxton having suggested the idea of a structure of iron and glass, up to that time never applied on a large scale, Mr Charles Fox was enabled, from his intimate knowledge of ironwork construction, to carry out the proposal, and with his own hand to work out most of the details. His firm took the contract for the erection of the building, and work having commenced towards the end of September, 1850, the Exhibition was opened by Her Majesty in person on May 1, 1851. In connection with this event Sir C. Fox, with Sir W. Cubitt and Sir Joseph Paxton, received the honour of knighthood. His firm afterwards removed the building from Hyde Park and re-erected it, with many alterations and additions, for the Crystal Palace Company at Sydenham. Sir Charles had been a member of the Institute of Civil Engineers since 1838. He was also for several years a member of the Council of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers.

SIR STEPHEN GLYNNE, BART.

Sir Stephen Richard Glynne, ninth Baronet, of Hawarden Castle, in the county of Flint, Lord Lieutenant of that county, and its M.P. from 1831 to 1847, died suddenly on the 17th inst. He was born Sept. 22, 1807, the elder son of Sir Stephen Richard Glynne, eighth Baronet, by Mary, his wife, daughter of Richard, second Lord Braybrooke. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, where he was third class in classics in 1828 and

graduated M.A. in 1831. In March, 1815, he succeeded to the title of Baronet, which was conferred, in 1661, on William Glynne, the son of the eminent Crown lawyer, Sir John Glynne, Lord Chief Justice under Cromwell, and which has become extinct, as Sir Stephen was never married. Sir Stephen had one brother, the Rev Henry Glynne, Hon. Canon of St. Asaph, who died July 30, 1872, without male issue, and two sisters, the wife of the Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, M.P., and Mary, late Lady Lyttelton.

BISHOP HARDING.

The Right Rev John Harding, formerly Bishop of Bombay, died at his residence, St Helen's Lodge, near Hastings, on June 18. The Bishop was the son of Mr. William Harding, and was born on Jan. 7 1805. His early education was received at Westminster School, whence he proceeded to Worcester College, Oxford, where he graduated B.A. (as third class in *Literis Humanioribus*) in 1826, and M.A. in 1829. In 1827 he was ordained deacon, and received priest's orders in 1829, both by the Bishop of Ely. In 1836 he was presented by the Crown to the rectory of St Andrew by the Wardrobe with St Anne's, Blackfriars, and was for some years honorary secretary to the Church Pastoral Aid Society. On the resignation of Bishop Carr, first Bishop of Bombay, in 1851, he was consecrated second bishop of that diocese, and remained in India till he finally resigned the see in 1868, when he returned to England.

REV C. A. JOHNS.

The Rev Charles Alexander Johns, B.A., F.L.S., whose works on botany and natural history have attained a wide popularity, was born in 1811, graduated in 1841 at Trinity College, Dublin, where he took four Vice-Chancellor's prizes in Greek and Latin verse. Having been ordained in 1841, he held the curacy of Yarncombe for two years, when he became chaplain to the National Society's Central Training Schools at Westminster. In 1843 he was appointed head-master of Helston Grammar School, Cornwall, and afterwards, from 1849 to 1856, he held the curacy of Beenham, being also engaged in the conduct of a preparatory school for Eton and Harrow. Mr. Johns was a fellow of the Linnæan Society, and in

1869 was elected the first president of the Hampshire and Winchester Scientific and Literary Society. Among his best known works are his "Botanical Rambles," "The Forest Trees of Britain," "A Week at the Lizard Point," "Rambles in the British Isles," "Flowers of the Field," "Gardening for Children," "British Birds in their Haunts," and "Home Walks and Holiday Rambles." Not the least successful of his works were those written specially for children. He died at his residence, Winton House, Winchester, on June 28, aged sixty-two.

SIR ALEXANDER NISBET, M.D.

Sir Alexander Nisbet, M.D., formerly Inspector-General of Hospitals in the Royal Navy, and an honorary physician to the Queen, expired at his residence at Lee, in Kent, on June 22. He became a licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh in 1812, in which year he entered the medical service of the navy, and served during the whole of the American war in 1814, for which he was awarded a medal thirty-six years afterwards. He was promoted to surgeon in 1815, graduated as M.D. at Edinburgh in 1818, he also served in North and South America, the East and West Indies, China, &c. He attained the rank of Inspector-General of Hospitals and Fleets in June, 1855, and in 1859 was admitted a member of the Royal College of Physicians of London, being nominated an honorary physician to the Queen in the same year. He retired from the medical naval service in 1861, having spent forty years on active service, and was granted a good-service pension in 1865. In 1873, he received the honour of knighthood from Her Majesty, in recognition of his long and faithful services.

REV MICHAEL SEYMOUR

The Rev. Michael Hobart Seymour, of Bath, who died on the 19th inst., graduated at Trinity College, Dublin, in 1825, was ordained in the same year, and had consequently been nearly fifty years in holy orders. He took a prominent part in anti-Roman movements, and was the author of several works on the points at issue between the Protestant and Roman Churches. Among his most successful books were "A Pilgrimage to Rome," published in 1849, "Mornings among the Jesuits at Rome," in 1850; "Certainty unattainable in the Church of Rome," 1852, and "Evenings with the Romanists," in 1854.

MR HOWARD STAUNTON

This accomplished literary scholar and eminent master of the science of chess-playing died quite suddenly on the 22nd inst., whilst sitting in his library, from heart disease. His age was about sixty-four. He was educated at Oxford, but never practised any other profession than that of writing, and devoted his chief study to the English dramatists of the Elizabethan age. With Shakspeare, Ben Jonson, and Beaumont and Fletcher he was most intimately acquainted, and with all the antiquarian lore of their time. His sagacity in conjectural emendations of a corrupted text was generally admitted. Between 1837 and 1860 he was employed on the edition of Shakspeare published by Messrs. Routledge, which is, next to "the Cambridge Shakspeare" of Messrs. Macmillan, still the best we have. In 1864 Mr. Staunton brought out his facsimile of the folio of 1623. His "Memorials of Shakspeare," and a series of articles, during the last two years, in the *Athenæum*, have kept up his authority in this branch of English scholarship. He was an honorary member of the Shakspeare Society in Germany. Mr. Staunton was the author, too, of an historical and descriptive account of "The Great Schools of England," the second edition of which appeared in 1869. Mr. Staunton's fame as a chessplayer and scientific connoisseur of that game was still more widely known. In 1843 he accepted the challenge to play at Paris against M. de St. Amant, the champion of Europe, whom Mr. Staunton defeated. Many renowned victories at the chess-table increased his reputation during the next seven years. His books upon this subject are "The Chess-Player's Handbook," 1847, and "Chess Praxis" which formed part of Bohn's Scientific Library, with "The Chess Tournament," a collection of notable games, "The Chess-player's Chronicle," commenced in 1841, and a controversial pamphlet of 1852, in defence of the London Chess Club. His report of the London Chess Tournament of 1851 was translated into German. For many years he edited the Chess column in the *Illustrated London News*.

MASTER TEMPLER.

Mr. John Charles Templer, who expired at Dudley Lodge, Harrow, on June 11, in the sixtieth year of his age, was a younger son of Mr. James Templer, of The Grove, Bridport, in the county of

Dorset, and was born in 1814. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, but does not appear to have graduated. Having been called to the bar at the Inner Temple on June 6, 1853, he was appointed in the following year one of the masters of the Court of Exchequer, which office he held at his death. He was for several years the captain-commandant of the 18th Middlesex (Harrow) Rifle Volunteers, but resigned that position in 1865. As a journalist, he was known as the founder and editor of the *Volunteer Service Gazette*. He was the bosom friend and correspondent of the late Sir James Brooke, K.C.B., the Rajah of Sarawak, whose correspondence first saw the light of publicity under Mr Templer's auspices.

July.

DR. BEKE, F.S.A.

The name of Dr Charles Beke, who died on the 31st of this month, at the age of seventy-three, is well-known in connection with recent researches in Arabia and Abyssinia. His first expedition into Abyssinia, with a view to opening up commercial relations with that State and the adjoining countries to the south of Egypt, took place in 1840, and subsequently he went out to the Mauritius, where he established himself as a merchant. In 1848 Dr. Beke set on foot an exploring expedition for the discovery of the sources of the Nile, to start from Zanzibar, hoping ultimately to be able to descend the river and so reach Egypt, but the design was not carried out. Dr. Beke's opinions on the subject of African explorations are given in a volume published by him in 1860, on "The Sources of the Nile," and a paper entitled "On the Mountains forming the East Side of the Basin of the Nile," which he read before the Geographical Section of the British Association. In 1864 Dr. Beke undertook a journey to Abyssinia for the purpose of urging on King Theodore the necessity of releasing Consul Cameron and the other Europeans whom that monarch had imprisoned. In this effort he was so far successful as to obtain their liberation, though after his departure the King again put them in prison. More lately the name of Dr. Beke has from time to time been brought before the public in controversies relating to the situation of Mount Sinai and on other subjects relating to the exploration of Africa. Recently

he made an expedition for the purpose of visiting the true Mount Sinai, which he contended had not been identified by the Sinai Ordnance Survey Expedition. He was also the real author of an Act which was passed about a quarter of a century ago, enabling British Consuls abroad to solemnise marriages between subjects of the Crown.

RIGHT HON. A. BREWSTER.

The Right Hon Abraham Brewster, formerly Lord Chancellor of Ireland, died in Dublin, on July 26, at the age of seventy-eight. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and was called to the Bar in 1819, going on the Leinster Circuit. In 1835 he received "silk," and in 1841 was appointed law adviser to the Castle. In 1852-3 he was made Attorney-General by Lord Aberdeen, but declined to continue in the office on the accession of Lord Palmerston to the Government in 1855. He remained in practice at the Bar until 1866, when he was raised to the bench as a Lord Justice of Appeal in Chancery. In 1867 Mr Disraeli raised him to the Irish woolsack, but he retired with the Government in the following year.

MR. CHRISTIE, C.B.

William Dougal Christie, Esq, C.B., a Member of Council of University College, who died on the 27th inst at his residence, 32 Dorset Square, was a distinguished diplomatist, and had also gained eminence in literature. He was born at Bombay, Jan. 5, 1816, the eldest son of Dougal Christie, M.D., of the East India Company's Medical Service, was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1838, and was called to the Bar at the Inner Temple in 1840. The next year he was made private secretary to the Earl of Minto, then First Lord of the Admiralty; in 1842 was elected, in the Liberal interest, M.P. for Weymouth, in 1848 received the appointment of Agent and Consul-General for Great Britain in the Mosquito Territory, in 1851 was transferred to Berne as Secretary of Legation, in 1854 became Chargé d'Affaires in the Argentine Republic; in 1856 was constituted Minister Plenipotentiary there, and in 1859 was raised to the high position of Envoy Extraordinary to the Emperor of Brazil. He retired from official life in 1865, and devoted much of his later years to literary pursuits.

ARCHDEACON CHURTON.

The Venerable Edward Churton, rector of Crayke, Yorkshire, and late Archdeacon of Cleveland, died on July 4. A member of a very distinguished family, and son of a former Archdeacon of St David's, he was born in the year 1800, and took his degree at Christ Church, Oxford, with high honours, in 1821. Becoming one of the Masters at the Charterhouse, then in its palmy days under Dr Russell, he was ordained deacon and priest by Dr Howley, then Bishop of London, and in 1830 was chosen the first Head Master of the Hackney Church of England School. In 1835 he was presented by the Bishop of Durham to the living of Crayke, which he held for nearly forty years. He was appointed to a prebendal stall in York Cathedral in 1841, and held the Archdeaconry of Cleveland from 1846 down to a very recent date, when he resigned it owing to increasing years. Archdeacon Churton, who was a firm but moderate High Churchman, is known as the author of the "Cleveland Psalter," the "History of the Early English Church," and also of an "Historical and Critical History of the Age of Philip III and IV of Spain."

THE EARL OF DALHOUSIE

The Right Hon Fox-Maule Ramsay, eleventh Earl of Dalhousie, K T, G C B, P C, died on the 6th inst. at Brechin Castle. His Lordship was born April 22, 1801, the eldest son of the Hon William Ramsay (second son of George, eighth Earl of Dalhousie), who, having succeeded, through his grandmother Jean, daughter of the Hon Harry Maule of Kellie, to the estates of the Earls of Panmure, took the name of Maule, and was created Baron Panmure in 1831. The nobleman whose decease we record received his education at the Charterhouse, and immediately after leaving school entered the Army in the 79th Highlanders, from which regiment he retired with the rank of captain. In 1834 he was elected M.P for Perthshire in the Liberal interest, and thenceforward took an active part in political life. From 1835 to 1841 he was Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department; in 1841, Vice-President of the Board of Trade, from 1846 to 1852, Secretary for War; in 1852, President of the Board of Control, and from 1855 to 1858 again Secretary for War. In 1852 he succeeded his father as Baron Panmure, and in 1860 his cousin, James Andrew, Marquis of Dalhousie, in the

Scottish earldom. He married the Hon. Montagu Abercromby, eldest daughter of George, second Lord Abercromby, but by her had no issue.

MR. JOHN HENEAGE JESSE

This gentleman, who died at the Albany on July 7, was a son of Mr. Edward Jesse, the eminent naturalist. Mr Jesse was the author of several important historical works. The first, "Memoirs of the Court of England during the Reign of the Stuarts," was published in 1839-40, and was followed by "Memoirs of the Court of London from the Revolution in 1688 to the Death of George II." Only a year elapsed when he brought out his memoir of "George Selwyn and his Contemporaries," and, in 1845, "Memoirs of the Pretenders and their Adherents." Turning his attention next to the history of the Metropolis and its distinguished men, Mr. Jesse produced in 1847 his "Literary and Historical Memoirs of London," which was succeeded in 1850 by a second series of papers of the same character, with the shorter title of "London and its Celebrities." Continuing his historical researches, Mr Jesse published in 1861 his "Richard the Third and his Contemporaries," a work dealing largely with the personal character of the King, and in 1867 he issued his "Memoirs of the Life and Reign of King George the Third," in which he introduces some of His Majesty's original letters and other unpublished manuscripts. Mr. Jesse served for many years in the secretary's department of the Admiralty at Whitehall, from which he retired on a pension.

MISS AGNES STRICKLAND.

This well-known authoress was the third daughter of Mr. Thomas Strickland, of Roydon Hall, Suffolk, and was born early in the century. In her younger days she manifested a taste for poetic composition, and wrote more than one romantic poem. At later times she made numerous contributions to the literature of the day, some of which were afterwards collected and reprinted as "Historic Scenes and other Poetic Fancies." She wrote many popular books for young people, and her "Pilgrims of Walsingham" added especially to her reputation. Aided by her sister Elizabeth, she published "Lives of the Queens of England from the Norman Conquest," the first volume of which appeared in 1840 and the last in 1849. This was a work of great

labour and of wide research, and brought to the sisters a well-deserved popularity. Agnes and Elizabeth Strickland likewise produced "Lives of the Queens of Scotland and English Princesses Connected with the Royal Succession of Great Britain." In 1862 the deceased authoress published "The Bachelor Kings of England," and this completed her chain of royal and domestic historical biographies. Other of her productions are "How Will It End?" issued in 1865; "Lives of the Seven Bishops," in the following year, and an abridged edition of the "Queens of England," for the use of schools and families. One of the results of Agnes Strickland's research into original documents was a conviction, after study of the State papers in the General Register Office at Edinburgh, of the innocence of Mary Stuart, which the authoress strenuously maintained. The excellence of her literary work, and the unflagging industry of her life recommended her to the notice of Mr Gladstone, in 1871, when she received a Civil List pension of 100*l.* in recognition of her merits. She died on July 8, at Roydon Hall.

August.

EARL ANNESLEY.

The Right Hon William Richard, fourth Earl Annesley, one of the Irish representative lords, died suddenly at Cowes, Isle of Wight, on the 10th inst. He was born in Rutland Square, Dublin, in Feb 1830, and succeeded to the title at his father's death in 1838. He was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for Downshire, and had held a seat in the House of Commons in the Conservative interest, as M.P. for Great Grimsby, from 1852 to 1857, when he retired. He was elected a representative peer for Ireland in 1867. He represented the county of Cavan in Parliament in the Conservative interest from 1857 down to the late general election. The Earl was a distinguished supporter of the turf, and also a yachtsman.

MR. BETTY.

Mr William Henry West Betty, known in his boyish days as the "Infant Roscius," died on August 25, in his eighty-third year. He was born at Shrewsbury on September 13, 1791, and was the son of Mr. William Henry Betty,

a physician of some eminence at Lisburn, in Ireland. When eleven years old he was taken to see Mrs Siddons as Elvira, in "Pizarro," at the Belfast Theatre, and the play made such an impression on his mind that from that time the drama became his study. On August 1, 1803, before he had completed his twelfth year, he appeared on the stage as Osman in the tragedy of "Zara," and after a rapid course of provincial engagements he was secured for Covent Garden Theatre for twelve nights at fifty guineas a night and a clear benefit, while he agreed to perform at Drury Lane on the intervening nights. In 1805 young Betty got from 50*l.* to 100*l.* per night. During the few months he played in London there was a perfect *furore* for him. He was invited by the nobility, and presented to the Queen and Princesses by the King himself. In 1808 he withdrew for a time from the stage, and entered Christ's College, Cambridge, and when, after a few years of education there, he returned, a full-grown man, to the stage, his performances ceased to be remarkable. The last time he appeared on the stage was at Southampton, on the occasion of his farewell benefit on August 9, 1824. He was then thirty-two years of age.

ALDERMAN CHALLIS.

Thomas Challis, Esq., senior member of the Court of Aldermen, died on the 20th inst., at Enfield, aged eighty. His connection with the corporation of London extended over a period of thirty years. In 1843 he succeeded Sir Matthew Wood as Alderman of Cripplegate Ward, in 1846, served the office of Sheriff of London and Middlesex; and in 1852 was elected to fill the civic chair. As Lord Mayor he took a prominent part in the encouragement of schools of art and in other educational matters. Engaged extensively in business as a hide merchant, in Finsbury and Bermondsey, he represented, in conjunction with Mr. T. S. Duncombe, the former borough in Parliament.

MR. SYDNEY DOBELL.

This gentleman, author of some poems which were talked of a few years ago, was born at Peckham Rye in 1824. It is understood that he was descended from an old Sussex family. He was the eldest son of John Dobell, to whom we owe the little-known work, "Man Unfit to Govern Man," and of Julietta, daughter of Samuel

Thomson, a political reformer of some note in his day. It was Samuel Thomson who added to the numerous sects existing among us one more bearing the distinctive name of "Freethinking Christians." Mr. Dobell received the rudiments of his education at home, but so early as in his twelfth year he was found doing the work of a clerk in the counting-house of his father, who in 1835 had removed his business—that of a wine merchant—from London to Cheltenham. During fifteen years the younger Dobell remained at the desk, but in that period he also employed his brain and pen in other matters than entries in ledgers. He found leisure to write "The Roman," a poem, which appeared in 1850, and obtained a cordial recognition in influential quarters. "Balder" was given to the world some years later and, if it was met by some very hostile criticism, the author's own friends hailed it as the authentic token of his peculiar genius. In partnership with Alexander Smith, in the year 1855 he sent out the "Sonnets of the War," but the world, which took little notice of the joint production, read and was struck by Mr. Dobell's special work, "England in Time of War." In 1861 Mr. Dobell was not a little gratified by the republication of his collected writings at Boston, United States. Mr. Dobell travelled over the greater part of Europe, but lately enfeebled health kept him almost a prisoner within his home circle at Nailsworth, on the Cotswold Hills, a few miles from Gloucester, where he died on August 22. Mr. Dobell did not limit his efforts to works of pure literature, he was greatly interested in Parliamentary reform, and in 1865 published a pamphlet in which he advocated a graduated suffrage and a plurality of votes for each elector.

THE EARL OF EGDMONT

The Right Hon. Sir George James Percival, sixth Earl of Egmont, whose death occurred at his seat, Nork House, Epsom, on the 2nd inst., was born March 14, 1794, the second son of Charles George, Lord Arden, by Margaret Elizabeth, his wife, eldest daughter of Sir Thomas Spencer Wilson, Bart., of Charlton, Kent. Entering the Royal Navy in 1805, he took part in the "Orion" at the battle of Trafalgar, and in the expedition to Egypt, 1806. In 1814 he assisted at the destruction of the American frigate "John Adams" and at the capture of the "President," and, in 1816, commanded the infernal bomb at Algiers. In 1863 he

attained the rank of Admiral. From 1837 to 1840 he sat in the House of Commons for West Surrey, but in the latter year succeeded, at the death of his father, to the barony of Arden, and in the following became Earl of Egmont as heir to his cousin, Henry Frederick John James, fifth earl. His lordship married Jane, eldest daughter of John Hornby, Esq., of The Hook, Hants, and died without issue.

SIR WILLIAM FAIRBAIRN, BART., F.R.S.

This eminent engineer died on August 18, in his eighty third year, at Moor Park, Farnham, Surrey. The son of a plain man of the middle class, a Mr. Andrew Fairbairn, of Smallholm, he was born at Kelso, in Roxburghshire, in the early part of the year 1789, and received his education as a boy at a small school at Mullochy, in Ross-shire, subsequently acquiring a more strictly professional training at Newcastle-on-Tyne. Apprenticed to an enginewright at Percy Main Colliery, he employed his evenings in the study of geometry and mechanics, and it is recorded in a sketch in the "Imperial Dictionary of Biography" that, on the termination of his apprenticeship he came to London, where he was employed for two years as a journeyman mechanic, and that he subsequently set out on a tour through the North of England, Wales, and a part of Ireland for the purpose of seeing the practical application of the principles which he had so carefully studied, but supporting himself by work through the whole of his travels. Mr. Fairbairn acted in conjunction with Robert Stephenson in the planning and execution of the celebrated Britannia and Conway tubular bridges across the Menai Straits. For the use of iron in ship-building Mr. Fairbairn was a constant advocate, at all events since the year 1850, when he published in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society his "Experimental Inquiry into the strength of Wrought-Iron Plates and their riveted joints, as applied to Ship-building and to vessels exposed to severe strains." Mr. Fairbairn collected several of his lectures on these and kindred subjects, and gave them to the world under the title of "Useful Information for Engineers," which has reached at least three series. He was also the author of works on the "Britannia and Conway Bridges," and on the "Application of Coal and Wrought Iron Beams to Floors and Bridges." He was a Fellow

of the Royal Society, a corresponding member of the French Institute, an active or honorary member of almost every society connected with engineering science in this country, and of many foreign philosophical societies; and had received medals or other marks of recognition for his services to science from most of the crowned heads of Europe. He several times acted as president of the mechanical section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, was a member of the jury of the mechanical department of the Great Exhibition of 1851, and president of the jury of the corresponding section in the Exhibition of Industry at Paris in 1855. He was created a baronet, at the recommendation of Mr. Gladstone, in 1869. Sir William Fairbairn married, in 1816, Dorothy, daughter of Mr. John Marr, of Morpeth, Northumberland, by whom he had a family of seven sons and one daughter.

MR. J H FOLEY, R A

Mr John H Foley, R A, the great sculptor, died on the 27th inst. He was born in Dublin in 1818, and at an early age displayed, at the schools of the Royal Dublin Society, that genius which afterwards placed him in the front rank of his profession. From Dublin he proceeded, in 1834, to the Royal Academy, London, and at the exhibition of 1839 contributed two studies—"The Death of Abel" and a figure, "Innocence." These were followed by his exquisite group, "Ino and Bacchus," "The Houseless Wanderer," "A Youth at a Stream," "Death of Lear," "Prospero and Miranda," &c. He was then engaged, being successful in competition, to undertake "Hampton" and "Selden" for the New Palace at Westminster. In 1851 he exhibited "The Mother," and in 1854 "Egeria," now in the Mansion House, London, in 1856 he produced 'Lord Hardinge and Charger,' for Calcutta, one of the finest works of modern times; and in 1858 he modelled " Caractacus," for the Mansion House. Amongst his numerous statues may be mentioned "Sir Charles Barry," for Westminster, "Lord Herbert," War Office; "Father Matthew," Cork, "Sir Henry Marsh" and "Sir Dominic Corrigan," Dublin; "Lord Elphinstone," Bombay; and "Sir James Outram." Mr. Foley was also selected by Her Majesty to execute the representation of the Prince Consort for the national memorial in Hyde Park, and also for the group of five figures emblematic of "Asia." In his own native city the

"Goldsmith" and "Burke" of Foley, appropriately placed in front of old Trinity College, prove proudly and lastingly that the genius of Ireland, whether in poetry or eloquence, in writing or sculpture, is immortal. Mr. Foley's remains have been interred in St. Paul's Cathedral.

THE HON. SIR JAMES LINDSAY.

Lieutenant-General the Hon. Sir James Lindsay, K C M G, colonel of the Buffs, military secretary to H.R.H. the Duke of Cambridge, died at Crammer House Mitcham, Surrey, on the 13th inst. This distinguished officer was born Aug 25, 1815, the second son of James, late Earl of Crawford and Balcarres, by Maria Margaret Frances, his wife, only daughter of John Pennington, first Lord Muncaster. After leaving Eton, he entered the Grenadier Guards, March 16, 1832, and served for many years in that regiment. For some time he acted as Inspecting-General of the Foot Guards, and, in 1870, proceeded on special service to Canada, receiving in recognition of his conduct therein the insignia of K C M G. He was subsequently appointed Inspector-General of the Reserve Forces, and finally, in April last, General Egerton's successor as Military Secretary. His commission of major-general bears date March 12, 1861, and that of lieutenant-general October 10, 1870. He sat for Wigan in the House of Commons from 1845 to 1857, and again from 1859 to 1866. He married, Nov 6, 1845, Lady Sarah Savile, only daughter of John, third Earl of Mexborough. The noble family of Lindsay, of which Sir James was a scion, is one of the most illustrious houses in Europe. Its changeful and romantic history has been beautifully told by the present Earl of Crawford in his work "The Lives of the Landscapes," and affords material for more than one chapter of Sir Bernard Burke's "Vicissitudes of Families."

SIR WILLIAM PERRY.

Sir William Perry, late her Majesty's Consul-General at Venice, died in that city on the 24th inst. He was born in 1801, the eldest son of the late Mr James Perry, of the *Morning Chronicle*. In 1835 he was appointed Master of the Horse to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, which office was then held by the second Earl of Mulgrave, who was created Marquis of Normanby in 1838. His

next appointment was in the diplomatic service, being nominated Consul at Panama in 1841. From this post he was transferred, in 1860 to Italy, as Consul-General for the Austrian coasts of the Adriatic, with his head-quarters at Venice. He retired (on the abolition of his office) and was knighted by patent in 1872. Sir William Perry did not on his retirement settle in England, but preferred to reside at Venice, where he died.

BISHOP SUMNER.

The Right Rev Charles Richard Sumner, formerly Bishop of Winchester, who died on August 15, at Farnham, Surrey, was the second son of the Rev Robert Sumner, vicar of Kenilworth. He was born in 1790, was educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge, was subsequently a master of Eton, where his humour with the boys was of a somewhat tantalising character, was a canon of Canterbury, and rector of Abingdon, and in 1816 married Miss Maunoir, daughter of Mr J P Maunoir, a Swiss gentleman, who followed the profession of a chemist. In 1826 he was promoted to the see of Llandaff, and in November, 1827, was translated to Winchester, over which diocese he presided for the space of forty-one years and nine months. The deceased prelate belonged to what is called the Evangelical party in the Church of England, though his opinions were always moderate, and he may rather be said to have stood halfway between the schools of Thirlwall and Simeon than to have accurately reflected the latter. In the great division in the House of Lords in 1829, on the Roman Catholic claims, he voted with nine other bishops in favour of the second reading, thirteen prelates, including the two archbishops, being against it. Yet in 1845 we find him voting with twelve other bishops against the Maynooth College Bill, other five of his episcopal brethren being found upon the other side. The bishop, however, was not an active politician, and his name very rarely occurs in the pages of "Hansard." He was more at home dispensing the splendid hospitality of Farnham Castle, and exercising a beneficent and paternal sway over the affairs of his immense diocese. By his clergy he was generally beloved; and though, as we have stated, he belonged nominally to the Low-Church party, he scarcely affected to throw the weight of his influence into one scale rather than the other. After ruling over

his diocese with the esteem and affection of all who came in contact with him for nearly forty years, the bishop was suddenly taken ill in the spring of 1868, while walking on the lawn in front of Farnham Castle with his daughter. The attack which prostrated him, and which took place on March 4, turned out to be a paralytic stroke, and for a short time his life was in the greatest danger. He rallied, however, for a while, and it was not till the following year that it became evident to him that he must take advantage of the Bishops' Resignation Act, which had already afforded to the Bishop of Bath and Wells an honourable excuse for retirement. Accordingly, in the month of August, 1869, he sent in his resignation, an act to which he probably owed the five years of life which he enjoyed since that time. The revenues of the see of Winchester were supposed to be worth from 15,000*l.* to 20,000*l.* a year under the old system. But it is needless to add that of this large income the bishop gave away a very considerable proportion. Bishop Sumner continued to reside at Farnham Castle, which was granted to him by the Crown for life, as Fulham had been to the Bishop of London. The bishop left behind him several sons and daughters.

MAJOR GENERAL SIR HENRY TOMBS, K C B, V. C.

This distinguished officer was the youngest son of the late General Tombs, of the Bengal Cavalry. He was born in November, 1824, and began his military training, at an early age, at Sandhurst, whence he proceeded to the late East India Company's Military College at Addiscombe, where, in June, 1841, he obtained a commission in the Bengal Artillery. He had only reached India a few months before he was called upon for active duty in the field by the outbreak of war. He served in the Gwalior campaign of 1843-44, and battle of Punniar (mentioned in despatch); also the Sutlej campaign of 1845-46, including the battles of Moodkee and Ferozeshah, affair of Buddiwal, and the battle of Aliwal, as aide-de-camp to Sir Harry Smith. He served through the Punjab campaign of 1848-49 as deputy-assistant quartermaster-general of artillery, including the battles of Chillianwallah and Goojerat, when he was made brevet major. The gallant officer commanded a troop of Horse Artillery in the affairs of the Hindun on May 30 and 31, 1857, horse shot the battle of Budlee Keesera,

two horses shot, and the siege of Delhi, in which action he was wounded, on July 9. He also commanded the column which assaulted and took the Eldgate, near Delhi, on June 17, wounded and two horses shot, commanded the artillery at the battle of Nujufghur, and the Horse Artillery at the assault of Delhi, wounded, siege and capture of Lucknow, affair at Allahgunge, battle of Bareilly, and the Rohilkund campaign, for which, in 1858, he was made a Companion of the Order of the Bath, obtained the Victoria Cross, and promoted to lieutenant-colonel and colonel in recognition of his eminent gallantry. He was mentioned in despatches on every occasion in terms highly eulogistic, he also had the honour of having his name mentioned in the House of Lords by the late Lord Dalhousie, the then Secretary of State for War, who spoke in high praise of his military services during that eventful campaign. He subsequently commanded the force which recaptured Dewangiri, in Bhootan, for which he received the thanks of the Government. In 1868 he was nominated a K.C.B. Lately he commanded the Oude division, and only relinquished that command to return to Europe, owing to impaired health. He had been in receipt of a good service pension since January, 1865.

September.

MR. JAMES ALLAN.

James Allan, Esq., the senior managing director of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Company, died at his house, Camps Hill, Lewisham, on the 15th inst., aged sixty-three. Mr Allan was a native of Aberdeen, and entered the service of the Dublin and London Steam Company in 1833. Of that company the Messrs Bourne, of Dublin, were the chief proprietors; and in 1834 they chartered one of their vessels, the "Royal Tar," which had been built in Aberdeen, to Don Pedro, and subsequently to the Queen Regent of Spain, through Messrs Wilcox and Anderson, shipbrokers, of London. M. Melchizabal who was at that time Spanish Minister in London, induced Messrs Bourne to put on a line of steamers between London and the Peninsula, and thus was formed the Peninsular Company, subsequently expanded into the Peninsular and Oriental Company. When the Peninsular Company was formed Mr. Allan was removed from

Dublin to fill a responsible position in London; and when the company finally obtained a Royal charter to trade to the East under the title of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, Mr Allan became the first secretary. He subsequently became managing director of the company, in conjunction with Messrs Wilcox and Anderson, now some years deceased.

DR F E ANSTIE, M.D.

Dr Anstie died on September 11 at his house in Wimpole Street, after a short illness brought on by exposure to sewer gas. The school of the Patriotic Fund at Wandsworth has lately been visited by serious illnesses, evidently due to structural sanitary defects, and Dr. Anstie on two recent occasions spent some hours in examining minutely into the defects of sewerage at the school, to which he attributed the outbursts of disease. On his return home on September 8, when he made his second visit, Dr. Anstie complained of illness, but was able to continue his professional work. Two days afterwards he was unable to leave his bed, and on September 11 he died, with symptoms of blood-poisoning. Dr Anstie was the originator and chief conductor of the inquiry into the state of workhouses which was published some years ago in the *Lancet*, and the *Times* states that he was the instigator of the recent petition of the College of Physicians to the Premier on the subject of the overcrowded dwellings of the poor. As a practical physician, Dr Anstie was widely known by his researches into the nature and causes of neuralgia, on which he had published a valuable treatise. He was physician to the Westminster Hospital, and, in addition to much literary labour of various kinds, he had been for some years editor of the *Practitioner*.

LORD BENHOLME

Hercules James Robertson, Lord Benholme, D.L., one of the Senators of the College of Justice, Scotland, died in Edinburgh on the 15th inst., in his seventy-ninth year. He was the third, but eldest surviving, son of George Robertson Scott, Esq. (whose name he assumed in consequence of his marriage), by Isabella, his wife, daughter and heiress of Robert Scott, Esq., of Benholme and Hedderwick. Lord Benholme was educated at the University of Edinburgh, and was called to the Scottish Bar in

1817 In 1842 he was appointed Sheriff of Renfrewshire, and, in 1853, a Lord of Session, taking the title of Lord Benholme He married, in 1829, Anne Williamson, youngest daughter of the late Right Hon Charles Hope, of Grantown

LORD FERMOY.

The Right Hon. Edmund Burke Roche, first Lord Fermoy, in the peerage of Ireland, Lord-Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of the county of Cork, died on the 17th inst., at his seat, Tiabogan, near Cloyne His Lordship was born Aug 1815, the only son of Edward Roche, Esq., of Tiabogan and Kildman, by his wife, Margaret Honoria, only child and heir of William Curtain, Esq., a near relative of the Right Hon Edmund Burke He was member of Parliament for the county of Cork, 1837 to 1855, and in the latter year was nominated a Peer of Ireland, but, some doubt having arisen as to one of the extinctions required for the creation of an Irish peerage, the subject was brought before the Lords' Committee for Privileges, to which the common-law judges were summoned After a memorable inquiry, the judges differed in opinion, but the majority were against the validity of the creation The result was that Lord Fermoy had to receive new letters patent in 1856 Subsequently he sat in the House of Commons for the borough of Marylebone, from 1859 to 1865 An eloquent and efficient M P, a kind and indulgent landlord, a keen sportsman, and in every respect an excellent resident nobleman, Lord Fermoy was universally beloved and esteemed He married Eliza Caroline, eldest daughter of James B Boothby, Esq., of Twyford Abbey, Middlesex, and left six sons and three daughters

MR CHARLES FIELD.

Mr C F Field, late chief inspector of the Metropolitan Detective Police, who formed a prominent figure in "Bleak House," being the detective who accompanied Charles Dickens in some of his most famous expeditions in London, died at his residence, Stanley Villas, Chelsea, on September 27. This celebrated detective was engaged in the year 1853 in sifting the case of Dr Smyth, who claimed to be the son of Sir Hugh Smyth, of Ashton Court, near Bristol Field went to the residence of the claimant's sister in a very quaint disguise, and he soon as-

certained to a certainty that the man was an impostor, and that his name was Tom Provis. But to recount all his exploits would require a large book His zeal, perseverance, and urbanity will be long remembered In 1851 he retired from the police force with a good service pension.

MR. JOSEPH GIBBS.

This gentleman, who for twelve years filled the office of private secretary to the Lord Mayor of London, was the son of Mr Alderman Gibbs, who was Lord Mayor in 1844, and his surviving brothers are Mr Justice Gibbs, of Bombay, and the Rev Michael Gibbs, treasurer of St Paul's Cathedral He was born in 1809, was educated at Queen's College, Cambridge, and was called to the bar at the Inner Temple in 1833. His official connection with the Mansion House commenced in 1861, and he was known to the public as the secretary of the great charitable funds which have of late years been raised at the Mansion House, beginning with the Lancashire Cotton Famine Fund in 1861, and ending with the French Relief Fund in 1871

MR CHARLES GILPIN, M P.

Mr Gilpin was born at Bristol in 1815. His father was Mr James Gilpin, a tradesman of Bristol, one of a Shropshire family, his mother was a sister of the late Mr Joseph Sturge, of Birmingham, well known as a politician and practical philanthropist Their son Charles, having received his early education at a school of the Society of Friends, began life as a traveller for a Manchester warehouse In the year 1842 Mr Gilpin settled in London, and opened a bookseller's and publisher's business in Bishopsgate Street, where he made for himself a large connection In course of time he was elected a Common Councilman of London He became a frequent speaker, at Exeter Hall and other places of public meeting, on behalf of the Peace Society and of other charitable and benevolent associations About this time a movement was set on foot which drew the attention of Mr Gilpin It was that of the freehold land societies commenced in Birmingham by Mr James Taylor Mr Gilpin saw the advantages that such societies would bring to the industrious working classes With Mr Cobden he became connected with the National Freehold Land Company in Moorgate Street As it became a great success, he withdrew from his own business in order

to carry out its management and that of a kindred institution, the National Provident Life Assurance Company. He had been an unsuccessful candidate for the representation of Perth in 1853 against the Hon. A. Kinnaird. But at the general election of 1857 he was returned to Parliament as one of the members for Northampton, a borough in which the dominant interest is that of the leather-sellers and boot and shoe makers. In 1858 he assisted, both by speech and vote, in throwing out the Conspiracy Bill, by which the Administration of Lord Palmerston was brought to an end, yet in 1859 he was offered the Secretaryship of the Poor-Law Board by Lord Palmerston. He accepted the post, reserving to himself the right of still advocating his own opinions on the abolition of capital punishment and other questions which he had studied as a philanthropist. He retired from office in 1865, and did not subsequently enter upon any Ministerial duties.

M. GUIZOT

François Pierre Guillaume Guizot died on September 12 at his residence at Val Richer, in the eighty-seventh year of his age, having been born at Nismes on October 4, 1787. He was of Huguenot descent, and his father, a distinguished advocate, died on the scaffold in 1794. Madame Guizot fled with her son to Geneva, where young Guizot had eleven years' schooling. In 1805 the exiles returned to Paris, and M. Guizot entered his name as a law student, but, owing probably to the straitened circumstances of his family, he accepted a situation as a private tutor in the house of M. Stapfer, a former Swiss diplomatist accredited to the French Republic. Seven years later, in 1812, he married Mdlle. Pauline de Moulan, a lady fourteen years his senior, who, like himself, wrote in the journal *Le Publiciste*. In 1812, the reputation M. Guizot had obtained won him from the Imperial Government a Professorship of Modern History at Le Sorbonne. In 1814, two years after this appointment, the empire came to an end, and M. Guizot's political career began by his appointment as Secretary to the Minister of the Interior. On Napoleon's return he gave up his post, but after the second restoration again took office, and held it, with the exception of a temporary retirement in 1816, till the murder of the Duc de Berri in 1820, when he retired. For the next ten years M. Guizot was almost entirely occupied in producing

those historical works which have made his literary fame. After the revolution of July, 1830, he became provisionally Minister of Instruction, and afterwards Minister of the Interior. For some years he retained under successive Ministries, and with short periods of opposition, the portfolio of the Ministry of Instruction, and for a short time represented his country as French Ambassador in London. In 1840 he became Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Cabinet of Marshal Soult, but was himself the leading spirit of the Administration, and continued in office till the revolution of February, 1848, put an end to the Monarchy and to M. Guizot's political career. Among the chief incidents of M. Guizot's Administration were the Pritchard controversy with England in 1844, and the affair of the Spanish marriages in 1846. After the fall of Louis Philippe, M. Guizot sought a refuge in England, where he remained for three years. After the *coup d'état* of December, 1851, he returned to France, and appealed to his old constituency of Calvados as a candidate for a seat in the Legislative Body, but the unfavourable result of the vote soon convinced him that the tide of his unpopularity was still setting strongly against him. He was equally unsuccessful at a later period in his efforts to bring about a fusion between the elder and younger branches of the Bourbons. He then resigned himself to the comparative leisure of private life, spending the remainder of his days in retirement at his country seat in Val Richer, near Lisieux, in Normandy, whence he only came forth in the discharge of his functions, either as a member of the French Academy or as a leader in the conferences of the Protestant Church in France.

LORD GEORGE MANNERS, M.P.

This nobleman, who died at Cheveley Park, near Newmarket, on September 8, was the third and youngest son of John Henry, fifth Duke of Rutland, K.G., D.C.L., Lord-Lieutenant of Leicestershire, and was born in London on June 22, 1820. His mother was the Lady Elizabeth Howard, second daughter of Frederick, fifth Earl of Carlisle, K.G. Lord George Manners was educated at Eton, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1841. He entered the Royal Horse Guards as cornet in 1840, in which corps he rose to the rank of major, and eventually to that of colonel in the army, being placed on half-pay June 5, 1869. He represented Cam-

bridgeshire in the House of Commons from August 1847 till April 1857, being elected, without opposition, as an avowed Protectionist and Conservative. He was re-elected in 1863, and retained his seat till his death. Since 1847 he had been on the commission of the peace for Cambridgeshire. Lord George Manners married, on October 4, 1855, the Lady Adeline Matilda Fitzalan-Howard, youngest daughter of Henry Charles, thirteenth Duke of Norfolk. By this lady, Lord George leaves issue three sons and a daughter.

SIR JOHN RENNIE.

Sir J Rennie, C.E., late President of the Institution of Civil Engineers, was born Aug 30, 1794. He first assisted his father, the late John Rennie, in building both Southwark and Waterloo Bridges. After the death of his father, in 1821, he succeeded him as Engineer to the Admiralty, a post he held during ten years. Among his more important works are London Bridge, for which he received the honour of knighthood, Sheerness Dockyard, the completion of Ramsgate Harbour and Plymouth Breakwater (commenced by his father), the Earl of Lonsdale's Docks at Whitehaven, and a portion of those at Cardiff, the construction of the Royal Clarence Victualling Yard at Plymouth, in conjunction with his brother the late Mr G Rennie, and the carrying out for a number of years the great system of drainage and land reclamation in the Lincolnshire fens. He was also the author of a work on harbours, of which Her Majesty was graciously pleased to accept the dedication, and for which he received tokens of honour from both the Emperors of Austria and Russia; also of a monograph on Plymouth Breakwater, besides a brief history of civil engineering in the form of a Presidential Address to the Institution of Civil Engineers. In conjunction with his late brother, he contributed to introduce the screw-propeller into the Navy, and erected the machinery for the mints of Calcutta, Bombay, and Mexico. He was the first to recognise the utility of the diving-bell for engineering purposes, and was admitted to be the highest authority on all subjects connected with hydraulic engineering, harbours, canals, irrigation, the storage of water, and the management of rivers. His pamphlet on the drainage of Lombardy, having attracted the notice of the Italian Premier, Signor Sella, the latter induced the King of Italy to confer on him the order of St

Maurice and St Lazare. Sir John also constructed the harbour of Ponta at Delgade, in the Azores. He was a Knight of the Tower and Sword of Portugal, and of the Order of Vasa of Sweden, and a member of the Academy of Sciences of Stockholm and of the Austrian Society of Civil Engineers. He was well versed in general science and literature, belonging to most of the scientific and learned societies of the Metropolis. He was an active member of the Royal Society and of the Meteorological Committee, and was also chairman of one of the juries at the International Exhibition of 1862. Of late, owing to age and increasing infirmities, he retired almost entirely from active life.

EARL OF ROMNEY.

Charles Marsham, third Earl of Romney, died at Folkestone on Sept 3. He was born July 30, 1808, and succeeded his father, the second Earl, in 1845, having been M.P. for West Kent for four years. He had for some time been chairman of the Kent magistrates, and had presided over the Court of General Sessions. Failing health compelled him to relinquish the post a few months ago, and generally expressed regret. His lordship was President of the Marine Society and chairman of several other public institutions, and took an active and prominent part in all leading county matters.

VICE-ADMIRAL SCHOMBERG.

Vice-Admiral C F Schomberg, who died on Sept 29, was the eldest son of the late Vice-Admiral Schomberg. He received his education at the Royal Naval College, and entered the navy in May 1829, obtained his first commission in June 1838, and was appointed in the July following to the "Hastings," Capt John Lawrence, and served with that ship in the Mediterranean. While in the "Hastings" he took part in the operations of 1840 on the coast of Syria, and in October of that year served in the boats under Commander Wort at the destruction of one of the castles at Beyrout, and the capture there of thirty-one barrels of powder. In November 1843 he removed to the "Cyclops" steamer, Capt H T Austin. He subsequently served in the "Tartarus" steamer, and was advanced to the rank of commander in February 1844. Since then he served, in June 1845, on board the "Queen," and

in December 1847 on board the "San Josef," both commanded on home service by Sir H. J. Loeke. In January 1848 he was appointed to the "Wellesley," bearing the flag of Admiral the Earl of Dundonald, on the North America and West India station. He was advanced to post rank July 10, 1851. On his return home he was appointed Government Emigration officer at Liverpool, and afterwards was appointed by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty the Queen's Harbour-Master at Holyhead, but retired in 1860.

SIR HENRY STORKS, G C B

Lieutenant-General the Right Hon Sir Henry Knight Storks, G C B, died on the 6th inst in his sixty-third year. He was educated at the Charterhouse, and entered the army in 1828. During the Kaffir War of 1846-7 he was Assistant Adjutant-General at the Cape of Good Hope; he commanded the British forces and all the military establishments from the Bosphorus to Smyrna during the Russian War, and superintended the evacuation of Turkey by the British army after the termination of hostilities in 1856. From 1857 to 1859 he acted as Secretary for Military Correspondence at the War Office. In 1859 he was selected to be Lord High Commissioner of the Ionian Islands, and he held the post during the troublesome period which preceded their cession. When they were handed over to Greece he was made Governor of Malta. After the outbreak in Jamaica in 1865 he was appointed Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief, and presided over the investigation which was held into the manner in which the rebellion had been repressed. For his services in this capacity he was, in 1866, made a Privy Councillor. On Mr Cardwell's accession to office as Secretary for War, Sir Henry was made Under Secretary and Controller-in-Chief, and in 1870 he became Surveyor-General of the Ordnance, and entered Parliament as member for Ripon. Sir Henry Storks' part in explaining and defending Mr Cardwell's military reforms is well known.

October.

SIR THOMAS BEAUCHAMP, BART.

Sir Thomas William Braggrave Proctor Beauchamp, Bart., died at his seat, Langley Park, Norfolk, on October 7, in the

sixtieth year of his age, after several weeks of protracted illness. Sir Thomas, who was educated at Eton, succeeded his father, Admiral Sir William Beauchamp, in 1861, was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant of Norfolk, was for some years lieutenant-colonel of the 2nd Batt Norfolk Rifle Volunteers, and high sheriff of the county in 1870. He married in 1854 the Hon Caroline Esther Waldegrave, second daughter of the second Baron Radstock, by whom he had several children, the eldest of whom, Mr Reginald Wm Beauchamp, succeeds to the title. In politics Sir Thomas was a Liberal, but was more widely known as a philanthropist, and for the interest he took in the temperance movement, the establishing of British workmen's clubs, &c. He was also closely identified with the Evangelical party, and frequently addressed public meetings on religious topics.

SIR J. BENSON

Sir John Benson, of Montenotte, in the county of Cork, an eminent architect and civil engineer, died in Alexander Square, Brompton. He was born in 1812, the son of John Benson, Esq., of Collooney, in the county of Sligo. He held successively the posts of county engineer to the East Riding of the county of Cork and engineer to the Cork Harbour Commissioners, and was mainly instrumental in improving the architecture of the city of Cork. His principal work, however, was the Great Industrial Exhibition building in Dublin in 1853, at the opening of which, May 12, he received the honour of knighthood from the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

MR. H. L. CHILDE.

Mr Henry Langdon Childe, who was known to a previous generation as the inventor of dissolving views, died at Mostyn Road, Brixton, in his ninety-third year. He belonged to a family of painters, his eldest brother having been president of the Society of British Artists, and his other brother, James Waring Childe, having been in his day a distinguished portrait painter. His first magic lantern was made when he was only in his fifteenth year. Afterwards he began to paint on glass, and produced slides illustrating natural history, astronomy, costumes of country, and he was engaged to give a series of entertainments at the Sanspareil Theatre (afterwards the Adelphi). In 1807 he first produced his

famous dissolving views, which he perfected about the year 1818, and exhibited them at the Adelphi, then under the management of Mr Yates. To one of these entertainments the Duchess of Kent, with the Princess Victoria, came, and at the close of the performance the Princess requested to see Mr Childe and learn how it was done. He exhibited at Her Majesty's Theatre in Lent during the years 1837-40, in conjunction with Mr Howell, who lectured on astronomy. The Polytechnic was opened with his great phantasmagoria, to which he afterwards added the chromatope, and for nearly twenty years he was connected with this institution, until the infirmities of age obliged him to withdraw from it. At an early period his exhibition at the Colosseum was exceedingly popular, and the Duke of Wellington was a frequent visitor.

GENERAL J EDEN, C.B.

The colonelcy of the 34th (Cumberland) Regiment of Foot has become vacant by the demise of General John Eden, C.B., who expired at Bath on October 6, aged eighty-five. The deceased general was the second son of the late Mr Thomas Eden, of Wimbledon, Deputy-Auditor of Greenwich Hospital, who was a brother of the first Lord Auckland. He entered the army in 1807 as a cornet in the 22nd Light Dragoons, and in the same year purchased his lieutenant's commission in that corps, with which he served during the campaign in Java in 1811, including the actions of August 10 and August 26. He received the war medal and clasps for his services. In 1817-18 he served as aide-de-camp to Sir Thomas Hislop at the battle of Mahendpore and throughout the Mahratta war. He was promoted to the rank of captain in 1818, and became major by purchase in 1825, purchasing his lieutenant-colonel's commission in 1830. He was nominated a Companion of the Bath in 1839, and for a few years he served on the staff as Assistant-Adjutant-General in Scotland. Having attained the rank of colonel in 1846, his various promotions in field rank were as follows:—Major-general, 1854, lieutenant-general, 1861, and general, 1868. He was nominated colonel of the 34th Foot on Jan. 3, 1860, in succession to the late General Sir Thomas M. Brisbane, G.C.B.

DR. W. W. FISHER.

Dr. William Webster Fisher, Downing Professor of Medicine in Cambridge Uni-

versity, died on October 4 at his lodge in Downing College. The deceased gentleman graduated as M.B. at Downing in 1834. Shortly afterwards he succeeded to a fellowship, but the Downing Professorship of Medicine falling vacant in 1841, Mr Fisher was elected, and resigned his fellowship. He, however, held some of the college offices, being steward and librarian up to the time of his death. The late professor acted for many years as one of the University examiners of students in medicine, and was an *ex officio* member of the University Board of Medical Studies. In addition to fulfilling the duties of his professorship, Dr Fisher for some years had a large practice as a physician at Cambridge. He was formerly one of the physicians to Addenbrooke's Hospital, and on resigning that post was appointed consulting physician to the institution. Although for some time he had relinquished the practice of his profession, he discharged his duties as professor until the year 1868, since which time his lectures have been delivered by a deputy, Dr P. W. Latham, late Fellow of Downing College. Professor Fisher was a Fellow of the Cambridge Philosophical Society, and a contributor to its "Transactions."

LORD FORESTER

The death of Lord Forester occurred at Willey Park, Shropshire, on Oct 10, in his seventy-fourth year. Previous to his elevation to the House of Lords on the death of his father, in May, 1828, he represented Wenlock in the House of Commons from 1826 to 1828. On the Conservative party, under Sir Robert Peel, succeeding to power on the break up of Lord Melbourne's Ministry in 1841, Lord Forester was appointed captain of the Corps of Gentlemen at Arms, when he was created a Privy Councillor. He held that office, attached to the Royal Household, up to 1846. He married Alexandrina Julia, daughter of the late Joachim Count von Maltzan (a diplomatic servant of Prussia), widow of Frederick James, third and last Viscount Melbourne. For a long succession of years Lord Forester's was a familiar face among the followers of the Duke of Rutland's hounds, and he was one of the permanent stewards of the Croxton Park Races.

DR JACOB

Arthur Jacob, M.D., F.R.C.S.I., who died this month, was a very distinguished

member of the medical profession, and is well known by his discovery of "Membrana Jacobi," and by his able and important writings on ophthalmia and amaurosis. He was born June 30, 1790, the son of John Jacob, for many years surgeon to the Queen's County Infirmary, and grandson of Michael Jacob, of Balinakill, also an eminent surgeon. He learned medicine under Abraham Colles, at Stevens's Hospital, Dublin, and graduated as M.D. in the University of Edinburgh in 1814. For many years he was sole editor of the *Dublin Medical Press*, and in it appeared many valuable contributions to the literature of his profession from his pen. He was Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, and thrice filled the president's chair.

MR. LAIRD, M.P.

Mr. John Laird, the member for Birkenhead, died on Oct. 29 at his residence in the borough with the prosperity of which he was so long and so intimately connected as a resident and a large employer of labour. Born at Greenock in the year 1805, he was the eldest son of the late Mr. William Laird, of Bukenhead. He was for many years a partner and head of the eminent firm of Laird and Sons, whose names are known in every quarter of the globe. He was one of the earliest and most successful of our iron shipbuilders. In 1837 Mehemet Ali placed upon the Nile an iron steamer built by him at Birkenhead, and about the same time he constructed the vessels in which Colonel Chesney explored the course of the Euphrates, and also a set of transports for the Indus and the Sutlej. Shortly afterwards he turned out the "Quorra" and the "Alburea," in which his brother, the African traveller, the late Mr. McGregor Laird, explored the Niger, and subsequently the fine steam frigate, the "Birkenhead," whose tragic fate off the coast of Africa will not be forgotten when we call to memory the heroic conduct of the troops on board of her, which may be said to have made her name historic. Mr. Laird retired from the active superintendence of the ship-building works at Birkenhead in 1861, in which year he was elected to Parliament for that newly-formed constituency, which his docks and the growth of population around them may be said to have called into being. Being chosen as the representative of such a constituency, Mr. Laird took an active part in the debates of the House of Commons whenever they

touched upon the construction of our fleet or our merchant vessels. He was also a magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant for Cheshire, and one of the Government nominees to whom was intrusted the management of the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board.

DR. LANKESTER.

Edwin Lankester, M.D., coroner for Middlesex, died at Margate on the 30th inst. Dr. Lankester was born in April 1814, at Melton, Suffolk, and was educated at Woodbridge. He afterwards studied medicine at University College, London, and in 1837 was made a member of the College of Surgeons and a licentiate of the Apothecaries' Society. In 1839 he graduated at Heidelberg, and in 1843 became lecturer on *Materia Medica* and Botany at the St. George's School of Medicine. In 1845 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. In 1858 he was appointed superintendent of the food collections at the South Kensington Museum, and in 1862 coroner for Central Middlesex, the office in which he was best known to the general public. He also occupied prominent positions in several scientific bodies, whose "Transactions" he enriched by his contributions. He was a very prolific writer on science, and only a few of his works can be named in this brief notice. In conjunction with Dr. Letheby he contributed the article on sanitary science to the "Encyclopædia Britannica," while he edited, by command of Her Majesty, "The Natural History of Dee-side." He also published various courses of lectures on food, the uses of animals, physiology, botany, and other branches of science, besides voluminous reports on various sanitary subjects.

THE DUKE OF LEINSTER

Augustus Frederick Fitzgerald, third Duke of Leinster, and Marquis of Kildare, died, on the 10th inst., at his seat, Carton, in the county of Kildare. His Grace was born August 21, 1791, the eldest son of William Robert, second Duke of Leinster, K.P., by Emilia Olivia, his wife, daughter and heiress of St. George Lord St. George. George IV., then Prince of Wales, stood sponsor at his baptism. His education he received at Eton, and at Christ Church, Oxford, and, while yet a boy, he succeeded his father as Duke of Leinster, October 20, 1804. In politics he was a staunch Whig, and sup-

ported in Parliament the cause of Queen Caroline, Catholic emancipation, Reform, and all Liberal measures he deemed beneficial to the country. At home in Dublin there was scarcely one of the public institutions that did not benefit by his fostering co-operation, and in every effort to promote the national welfare he took an active part. His Grace married Lady Charlotte Augusta Stanhope, daughter of Charles, third Earl of Harrington, and left issue Charles William, Marquis of Kildare, Lord Gerald FitzGerald, Lord Otho Augustus FitzGerald, and Lady Jane Seymour Repton.

SIR DENIS LE MARCHANT, BART.

Sir Denis Le Marchant died on Oct. 30 at his residence in Belgrave Road, in the eightieth year of his age. The second but eldest surviving son of the late Major-General Le Marchant, of Manor Le Marchant, in the island of Guernsey, he was born at Newcastle-upon-Tyne in 1795, and was educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Cambridge. He was called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn in 1828. In 1830 he was appointed principal secretary to Lord Brougham upon the latter attaining the Woolack, and in 1834 Clerk of the Crown in Chancery. From 1836 down to 1841 he was Secretary of the Board of Trade, and held the post of Joint Secretary to the Treasury during the last three or four months of Lord Melbourne's Administration. In 1847, on the return of the Liberal party to power, he was appointed Under-Secretary for the Home Department, but in the following year returned to his former post at the Board of Trade. In 1850 he was nominated Chief Clerk to the House of Commons, but retired, after a little more than twenty years' service, in 1871, when he had the satisfaction of receiving a formal vote of thanks from the House of Commons, proposed by Mr Gladstone, and seconded from the Opposition benches by Colonel Wilson-Patten, now Lord Wimborne. On that occasion Mr Gladstone bore testimony to the fair and equitable spirit in which Sir Denis Le Marchant conducted the business of the House of Commons, and his great desire to promote the efficiency of the establishment over which he presided, by doing justice to all parties concerned. Mr Gladstone also referred to that portion of the duty of the principal clerk at the table, which consists in the government of the large establishment attached to the House for the performance of its varied duties, and observed

that the manner in which these duties were performed by Sir Denis Le Marchant spoke highly for his soundness of judgment and discretion. Sir Denis Le Marchant sat for a short time in the House of Commons, having been returned for the city of Worcester in 1816 to fill the vacancy caused by Sir Thomas Wilde's elevation to the Bench. He married in 1835 Sarah Eliza, fourth daughter of the late Mr. Charles Smith, and sister of the late Sir Charles J. Smith, of Suttons, Essex, by whom he had a family of two sons and a daughter. He is succeeded in his baronetcy—which was conferred on him at the instance of Lord Melbourne, previous to his retirement from official life in 1841—by his elder son, Henry Denis, a barrister-at-law of Lincoln's Inn.

MRS. MARSH-CALDWELL.

Mrs Anne Marsh-Caldwell, of Linley Wood, in the county of Stafford, authoress of "Emilia Wyndham," died on the 5th inst, at her seat, near Lawton. She was daughter of James Caldwell, Esq., of Linley Wood, J.P. and D.L., Recorder of Newcastle-under-Lyme, and succeeded to that estate at the death of her brother, James Stamford Caldwell, Esq., in 1858, whereupon she resumed the surname of Caldwell, being at the time widow of Arthur Cuthbert Marsh, Esq., of Eastbury Lodge, Herts. Mrs Marsh-Caldwell's principal works were "Two Old Men's Tales," "Mount Sorel," "Emilia Wyndham," "Morlaunt Hall," "Ravenscliffe," "The Wilmingtons," "Aulrey," "The Heiress of Haughton," and "The Rose of Ashurst."

MR. T. MILLER.

Mr. Thomas Miller, the author of "Gideon Giles," "Royston Gower," "Godfrey Malvern," and some volumes of poetry, died at his residence in New Street, Kennington Park Road, on October 24. He had been in a precarious state of health for some time past. Mr. Miller was born at Gainsborough, in Lincolnshire, in 1807, and began life as a basket maker at Nottingham. His first volume of poems was published while he was an apprentice at that trade. A memoir in the *Daily News* says.—"As an instance of a man raising himself from a very humble sphere to become both a literary and a personal favourite in the most refined and discriminating circles, Mr. Miller is certainly without a modern

parallel, for—in addition to the poets whose names we have mentioned (Moore, Rogers, Campbell, and Miss Landon)—he was intimate with and admired by Thackeray, Disraeli, Lough Hunt, Jerrold, and many of the finest minds of his time."

MR. BRYAN WALLER PROCTOR.

This estimable poet, better known by his pseudonym of Barry Cornwall, died at the age of eighty-six, on October 4, at his residence, 32 Weymouth Street. With most of the great literary men of the last fifty years he was on close terms of intimacy, beloved and respected by all who knew him. In the seventy-seventh year of his age Barry Cornwall placed on record his recollections of Charles Lamb. In the preface he says, "I am, I believe, nearly the only man now surviving who knew much of the excellent 'Elia.' Assuredly I knew him more intimately than any other existing person during the last seventeen or eighteen years of his life." He was educated at Harrow, and was a contemporary of Lord Byron. He was called to the Bar as a member of Gray's Inn in 1831. He held for many years an appointment as one of the Commissioners of Lunacy. He married the daughter of Basil Montagu, and their daughter, Adelaide Ann Proctor, is well known as the authoress of "Legends and Lyrics" and the song "The Message." We learn from "Men of the Time" that Mr. Proctor's tragedy, "Mirandola," was brought out at Covent Garden Theatre with considerable success in 1821, Mr. Macready taking the principal character. Mr. Proctor also wrote "A Scilian Story," "Marcan Colonna," and the "Flood of Thessaly." His most original work is the "Dramatic Scenes," which, in style, are modelled on that of the old English drama, and abound in winning simplicity and graceful sentiment. Mr. Proctor also published a volume entitled "English Songs," many of which have become general favourites.

SIR JOSHUA ROWE, C.B.

Sir Joshua Rowe, C.B., whose death took place on October 30 at his residence in Queen Anne Street, Cavendish Square, at the age of seventy-five, was a man of note in his day, and especially in the island of Jamaica, with the administration of which he was connected for many years. A son of the late Mr Joshua Rowe, of Torpoint, near Devonport, he

was born in the year 1799, and was called to the Bar at the Inner Temple in 1824. In 1832, about the time of the first outbreak in Jamaica, caused by the insurrection of the slaves in that island, he was nominated Chief Justice of Jamaica and Chief Judge of the Court of Judicature, receiving at the same time the honour of knighthood. Three years later he was appointed judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court and a member of the Legislative Council of the island. He retired, however, from his active post on a well-earned pension about seventeen years ago.

MAJOR-GENERAL SLADE, R.E.

Major-General William Henry Slade, one of the last surviving officers of the Royal Engineers who served in the Peninsular war, entered that corps as a second lieutenant November 1, 1806, was promoted first lieutenant May 1, 1807, and captain March 4, 1812. In the following year he joined the army in the Peninsula, and was present at the siege of San Sebastian in July and August 1813, the blockade of Bayonne and the repulse of the sortie, and was one of the officers selected to accompany the boats from Socoa to the mouth of the river Adour, and to assist in laying the bridge across that river. He was promoted major July 22, 1830, lieutenant-colonel, January 10, 1837, colonel, September 5, 1850, and retired on full-pay with the rank of major-general, December 13, 1854. The Peninsular war medal was awarded him with a clasp for San Sebastian. General Slade died Oct. 23, in his eighty-eighth year.

MR. WILLIAM TWEEDIE

This well-known temperance publisher died at his residence, Campden Hill Road, Kensington, on October 27. Mr. Tweedie was born in Scotland in 1821, and came to London in 1848 to open a dépôt for the sale of temperance publications, and since 1851 he has occupied the premises opposite Somerset House. Mr. Tweedie was prominently connected with the National Temperance League, and took an active part in most of the institutions that have sprung up in connection with the temperance movement, having been chairman for the last nineteen years of the Temperance Permanent Land and Building Society, and also a director of the United Kingdom Tem-

perance and General Provident Institution and the London Temperance Ho-pital

HON. EDWARD TWISLETON.

The Hon Edward Turner Boyd Twisleton, brother of the Venerable Lord Saye and Sele, Archdeacon and Canon of Hereford, and son of the late Hon and Venerable T. J Twisleton, Archdeacon of Colombo, died at Boulogne-sur-Mer on the 5th inst. Mr Twisleton, who was born on May 24, 1800, was educated at Winchester and at Trinity College, Oxford, where he became a scholar of his college in 1826, and took a first class in classics in 1829. In the following year he obtained a fellowship at Balliol, and five years later was called to the Bar at the Inner Temple. Mr Twisleton soon obtained active employment on several Government Commissions, his first work of this nature being that of Assistant Poor-Law Commissioner for England, on which he entered in 1839. In 1843 he was appointed a commissioner to inquire into the Scotch poor laws, and in 1845 he was nominated to the post of Chief Commissioner of Poor Laws in Ireland, which he held until 1849. In 1855 he was appointed one of the Oxford University Commissioners, and in 1861 he became a member of the commission of inquiry into the English public schools. In the following year he was appointed a Civil Service Commissioner an office which he filled until the year 1870, when he retired from public life. Mr Twisleton offered himself as a candidate for the representation of Cambridge in 1859, but was unsuccessful. He married in the year 1852 Ellen, daughter of the Hon Edmund Dwight, Senator of the State of Massachusetts, who died in 1862. Mr Twisleton published in 1871 "The Handwriting of Junius professionally investigated by Mr Charles Chabot, expert, with a profane and collateral evidence"

November.

MAJOR-GENERAL BRISTOW.

This gentleman, one of the surviving veterans of the Peninsular campaigns, died on the 23rd inst. at Madrid, where he had resided for some years, aged eighty-nine. General Bristow served on the Walcheren Expedition in 1809, and was present at the siege of Flushing.

He was in garrison at Gibraltar in 1811 when the Spanish army of General Balasteros took refuge under the guns of that fortress, and subsequently joined the army in Portugal, being placed on the Quartermaster-General's staff, on which he continued to the end of the war. He was present at most of the operations carried on in the North of Spain under the Duke of Wellington, and received the war medal with three clasps for the battles of Salamanca, Vittoria, and the Pyrenees.

COLONEL ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL.

This officer, another of the Peninsular heroes, died at his residence at Bath on November 28. Born in 1789, he commenced his military career in 1809, in the Londonderry Militia, from which he obtained in 1811 a commission without purchase in the 77th Regt of Foot. He served with his regiment in the Peninsular campaign until the conclusion of the war in 1813, being present at the siege of Bayonne and at the repulse of the sortie, he also volunteered for the forlorn hope, but the assault was rendered unnecessary. After serving in the East and West Indies, Australia, and the Mediterranean, he went with the rank of captain and brevet major (30th Foot) to the Crimea, and was wounded at the storming of the Redan. Both his sons were with him in the Crimea, and belonged to the same regiment. He was subsequently promoted to the majority of the 20th Regt, but retired in 1851 on full pay with the honorary rank of colonel.

VICE-ADMIRAL DENMAN.

Vice-Admiral the Hon. Joseph Denman, who died in London on the 26th inst., was born June 23, 1810, the second son of the eminent Chief Justice Lord Denman. He was educated at Eton, and, entering the Royal Navy in 1823, served on the Mediterranean station, where he was engaged in a severe action with pirates off the Island of Candia in 1826. In 1840 and 1841, while officiating as senior naval officer on that part of the coast of Africa lying between Cape Verde and Cape Palmas, Lieut Denman, owing to the offensive conduct of the slave dealers at the Gallinas, entered into a treaty with the native chiefs, by virtue of which the whole of the factories were destroyed, and the slaves, 900 in number, given up, carried to Sierra Leone, and emancipated. His conduct met with the

approval of the Government, and he was rewarded with post rank in August 1841. In 1842 he was appointed a commissioner for drawing up a code of instructions for Her Majesty's ships employed in the suppression of the slave trade. In December 1853 he succeeded Captain Lord Adolphus Fitzclarence in the command of Her Majesty's yacht "Victoria and Albert," which he held till he obtained flag rank.

MR. HARDMAN

The name of Mr. Frederick Hardman is not, perhaps, so well known as most of those literary names found in these columns, but there are few whose writings have been more widely read. He was for twenty-four years one of the foreign correspondents of the *Times*, commencing his letters from Spain in the year 1850 and continuing them from the Crimea, the Danubian Principalities, Vienna, Turin, Schleswig-Holstein, Paris, Bordeaux, Rome, and again Paris, where he died early in November, at the age of sixty-one. The mere list of the places from which he wrote recalls to mind the principal historical events of the last quarter of a century. Before entering on his connection with the *Times*, Mr. Hardman contributed some papers on Spanish affairs to *Blackwood's Magazine*, and published a novel called "The Student of Salamanca."

MR. THOMAS HOOD

The death of this clever and pleasant writer—whose father, Thomas Hood, the famous humorist and poet, has an abiding-place among the ornaments of English literature—took place on the 20th of this month, after an illness of some weeks. He was but in the fortieth year of his age, having been born at Lake House, Wanstead, on January 19, 1835. He was educated at University College School and Louth Grammar School, and at Pembroke College, Oxford. His first work, "Pen and Pencil Pictures," written at Oxford, was published in 1854-5, and was followed by several other facetious tales, poems, and novels. He was also author of "Rules of Rhyme," a guide to versification, and of several books for the amusement of children. He illustrated some of his father's comic verses, being skilled with the pencil as well as the pen. He was appointed editor of *Punch* in May, 1865, and made that journal a rival to *Punch*.

SIR WILLIAM JARDINE, BART.

Sir William Jardine, seventh baronet, of Applegirth, the famous naturalist, was the son of Sir Alexander Jardine—to whom he succeeded, in 1821—by the daughter of Mr. Thomas Maule, the representative of the Earls of Panmure. He was born in North Hanover Street, Edinburgh, in 1800, and married in 1820 a daughter of Mr. Daniel Lisars, Edinburgh. In 1871 he married a second time, the daughter of the Rev. W. S. Symonds, rector of Pendock, Worcestershire, a distinguished geologist. Sir William was educated at the University of Edinburgh, and early in life evinced a decided taste for scientific pursuits, especially for natural history in all its varied branches, and this taste was maintained to the close of an active and energetic life. He was a good botanist and geologist, but his chief strength lay in his knowledge of animals, and especially of birds. He was a keen sportsman, and much of his information was acquired in the field and by the riverside—for the sportsman was always subsidiary to the naturalist. He was equally ready in the study. He could bring down a bird, write a most accurate description of it, and draw it, and engrave the drawing, and then stuff the skin in the most workmanlike manner. His museum at Jardine-hall forms one of the finest and most valuable private collections in Britain. He was equally indefatigable as an author and as an observer, and the list of his own works and of those which he edited shows the life of untiring energy he led. The owner of a fair estate in Dumfriesshire, where he generally resided, he took a leading part in the public business of the county, and he was especially active during the prevalence of cattle plague there. On one occasion he came forward as a Conservative candidate for the representation of that county in Parliament, but retired before the day of election. Sir William was appointed a Deputy-Lieutenant of Dumfriesshire in 1841. He was one of the Commissioners appointed to investigate the salmon fisheries in 1860. He was, in his own special branches, a valuable member of the British Association for the advancement of science, an advancement to which the greater part of his life was dedicated. He died Nov. 21.

HON. G. STAFFORD-JERNINGHAM.

This gentleman, the third son of the late Lord Stafford, was in the diplomatic service for many years, beginning his

career in 1826 as *attaché* to the Embassy at St Petersburg. He was secretary of Legation and *Chargé d'Affaires* at the Hague from 1833 to 1836, and subsequently at Turin, at Madrid, at Constantinople, and at Paris. He was appointed Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the King of Sweden and Norway in November 1853, but did not proceed to his destination. In 1854 he was sent in a similar capacity to Wittenberg, and to Stockholm in 1859, but had lately retired. Mr Stafford-Jerningham died unmarried at the age of sixty-seven.

SIR JAMES RANALD MARTIN,
C.B. F.R.C.S.

The medical profession has lost one of its most distinguished members by the death of this gentleman, which took place at his house, in Upper Brook Street, on November 27. A son of the late Rev Donald Martin, of Kilmuir, in the Isle of Skye, he was born at the close of the last, or very early in the present, century. He entered the Medical Department of the Bengal Army in 1818, and served in the first Burmese war. He afterwards held various posts in India, both civil and military, but quitted Bengal in 1840, and retired from the Indian medical service in 1842. He became a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons in 1842, and in the same year was a Sanitary Commissioner in England. He was appointed physician to the Council of India in 1859, and Inspector-General of Army Hospitals in 1864. He had retired from the former office only a few days before his death. Sir Ranald, who married, in 1826, Jane Maria, third daughter of Col Paton, C.B., was the author of "The Influence of Tropical Climates on European Constitutions," and of various sanitary reports. He was nominated a Companion of the Bath (Civil Division) in 1860, and received the honour of knighthood in the same year.

ADMIRAL SIR HENRY PRESCOTT,
G.C.B.

This gallant officer died in Leinster Gardens, Hyde Park, on the 18th inst., in his ninety-second year. He was son of Admiral Isaac Prescott, by Mary, his wife, daughter of the late Rev Richard Walter, and entered the Royal Navy in 1796. From that year to 1811 he saw much active service, principally in the Mediterranean, and was afterwards em-

ployed at the Channel Islands and in the Bay of Biscay. In 1801 he took part in the landing in Egypt, and in 1805 (as Lieutenant of the "Eolus") was in Sir Richard Strachan's action with the ships that escaped from Trafalgar. From 1821 to 1825 he served in South America, and was Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Newfoundland from 1834 to 1841. For a few months, in 1847, he held office as a Junior Lord of the Admiralty, and was appointed, from 1847 to 1852, Admiral Superintendent of Portsmouth Dockyard. He became an admiral in 1860, and the same year obtained his service pension. Admiral Prescott was nominated K.C.B. in 1856, and G.C.B. in 1869. He married, in 1815, Mary Anne Charlotte, eldest daughter of Vice-Admiral Philip D'Auvergne.

DR SEWELL

Dr William Sewell, Senior Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford, and one of the most distinguished members of the University, died at Leckford Hall, near Manchester, on November 14. Dr. Sewell, who was brother of the present Vice-Chancellor, graduated "first class" in classics in 1827, when a postmaster of Merton College, from whence he was elected to a fellowship at Exeter. The deceased gentleman, in addition to the highest honour in the schools, obtained successively the prizes for the English essay and the Latin essay. He afterwards became tutor and sub-rector of his college, and filled the university offices of public examiner (1832) and Professor of Moral Philosophy (from 1836 to 1841). He was Whitehall preacher in 1850, and in 1852 was appointed warden of St Peter's College, Radley, which he held until 1860. Dr Sewell was a scholar of the highest attainments, and was the author of many religious and classical works. He had been ill for some time, and his death was not unexpected.

DR EDWARD SMITH.

Dr Edward Smith, F.R.S., assistant medical officer to the Local Government Board, who died on the 16th inst., was a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians and of Surgeons. He was a man of rare mental powers, combined with indefatigable industry. The mere list of his published works would occupy a considerable space, while it would show at the same time the varied character and the depth of his researches in various

branches of medical science. In 1849 he published an "Account of a Journey Through North-East Texas." He was also the author of works on "Health and Disease as Influenced by Daily and other Changes in the Human System," and on "Consumption," and of numerous papers in medical and scientific journals on pulsation and respiration, phthisis, prison diet, the action of alcohol, food, &c. In 1862 and 1863 he reported to the Privy Council on the dietary of Lancashire operatives and other low-fed populations, and contributed a volume on food to the International Science Series. His most recent works are a "Manual for Medical Officers of Health" and a "Handbook for Inspectors of Nuisances." Dr Smith was formerly for some years assistant-physician to the Hospital for Consumption at Blompton. He was a corresponding member of the Natural History Society of Montreal and of the Académie des Sciences et Lettres de Montpellier.

GENERAL SIR J. M. F. SMITH.

General Sir John Munk Frederick Smith, K.H., F.R.S., was the son of the late Major-General Sir J. F. S. Smith, and grand nephew of Field Marshal Baron von Kalkreuth, formerly Commander-in-Chief of the Prussian army. He entered the corps of Royal Engineers as second lieutenant in 1805, served in 1809 at the siege of the castle of Ischia and the capture of that island and Procida, in the Bay of Naples. In 1810 he took part in action before the investment of the fortress of Santa Maura as Deputy-Assistant-Quartermaster-General, and at the siege and capture of the fortress as an officer of the Royal Engineers. He was for some years Inspector-General of Railways, and a Gentleman Usher of the Privy Chamber. In 1851 he was appointed to the command of the Royal Engineers at Portsmouth, and at Aldershot camp in 1855. He was author of a translation of Marshal Marmont's work "On the Turkish Empire, with Military and Political Notes." Sir John, who was in politics a Conservative, was M.P. for Chatham in 1852-3, and again in 1857-65. He died on the 20th inst. in his eighty-second year.

SIR ALEXANDER SPEARMAN, BART.

The public has lost a valuable servant by the death, at the age of eighty-one, of the Right Hon. Sir Alexander

Young Spearman, of Spring Hill, Hants, Middlesex, many years Assistant-Secretary to the Treasury under the Administration of Lord Melbourne. Sir Alexander was born in 1793, the son of Major Alexander Young Spearman, R.A. He held the appointment of Assistant-Secretary to the Treasury from 1836 to 1840. He was also a magistrate for Middlesex, and for many years Controller-General of the National Debt. He was created a baronet by the Whig Government before their retirement from office in 1840, and was sworn a member of Her Majesty's Privy Council in 1869. Sir Alexander Spearman, who was descended from an old and respectable family, long connected by the ties of property with the county of Durham, married Mrs. Jane Campbell, daughter of Mr. Duncan Campbell, of Inverawe, Argyllshire, by whom he had four daughters and four sons.

December.

MR. WILLIAM URQUHART ARBUTHNOT.

This gentleman, who had been for many years a member of Her Majesty's India Council, and chairman of the Finance Committee, died at his residence in Eaton Place on Dec. 11. He was the fifth son of Sir William Arbuthnot, Bart., formerly Lord Provost of Edinburgh, and was born in 1807. Educated at the Edinburgh High School, and afterwards at the Harlebury East India College, which he left with distinguished honours, Mr. Arbuthnot entered the Madras Civil Service in 1826. He served with distinction in various responsible posts in that Presidency for a period of twenty years, and having resigned the service in 1846, when collector and magistrate, and agent to the Governor at Vizagapatam, joined the well-known firm of Messrs. Arbuthnot and Co. in Madras. He finally returned to England in 1858, and on September 1 in that year he was appointed member of the India Council. More than once Mr. Arbuthnot was offered the appointment of Finance Minister for India, but declined on both occasions, partly on the score of age and risk of health, and partly from the conviction that his services were of greater value at his post at the India Office. He was married in 1834 to Eliza, daughter of Gen. Sir Henry Taylor, K.C.B.

MR. AUSTIN, Q.C.

Charles Austin, Esq., Q.C., M.A., of Brandeston Hall, Suffolk, J.P., chairman of quarter sessions for the east division of that county, and a Benchler of the Middle Temple, died on the 21st inst at his seat near Wickham Market, aged seventy-five. This distinguished lawyer, long the leader of the Parliamentary Bar, was son of Mr. Jonathan Austin, of Ipswich. After receiving his early education at Bury St. Edmunds, he went to Cambridge, and there graduated in 1824; was called to the Bar in 1827, and became a Queen's Counsel in 1841. He married, in 1856, Harriet Jane, daughter of the late Captain Ralph Mitford Preston Ingilby.

MR. B. B. CABBELL.

Benjamin Bond Cabbell, Esq., of Cromer Hall, Norfolk, F.R.S., F.S.A., of the Middle Temple, barrister and benchler, J.P. and D.L. for Middlesex and Norfolk, M.P. for St. Albans 1846 to 1847, and for Boston 1847 to 1857, died on the 9th inst., in his ninety-fourth year. This gentleman, whose long-continued and munificent subscriptions to public charities are well known, was educated at Westminster and Exeter College, Oxford, was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple in 1816, and served as High Sheriff for Norfolk in 1854. Orphan asylums and other institutions for the young were the especial objects of his benevolence, he was also one of the earliest contributors to the Royal Literary Fund, of which he was Vice-President from the year 1829, and served the office of steward on twenty-eight occasions.

SIR GEORGE CHOLMLEY, BART.

Sir George Cholmley, seventh Baronet, of Boynton, in the county of York, J.P. and D.L., M.P. for the West Riding 1831 to 1841, and for Preston 1841 to 1847, died on the 24th inst., at Newton Hall, his seat, near Bridlington. He was born Nov. 26, 1782, the son of Sir William Strickland, sixth baronet, by Henrietta, his wife, daughter and co-heiress of Nathaniel Cholmley, Esq., of Whitby and Howsham, and was representative of the ancient baronetical family of Strickland of Boynton. He succeeded to the title at the death of his father, January 8, 1834, and assumed by Royal licence, March 17, 1865, the surname of

Cholmley instead of that of Strickland. With the name Sir George inherited the great Cholmley estate, which, added to his patrimony, rendered him one of the chief landed proprietors in the north of England. He was twice married, and left two sons and a daughter. The late baronet was well known in sporting circles as the breeder of some celebrated racehorses.

COLONEL G. H. GREY.

Colonel George Henry Grey, Equerry to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, died at Sandringham on the 11th inst. He was born March 21, 1835, the only son of the Right Hon. Sir George Grey, Bart., G.C.B., formerly Secretary of State for the Home Department, by Anna Sophia, his wife, daughter of the Hon. and Right Rev. Henry Ryder, Bishop of Lichfield and Coventry. He married, November 20, 1860, Harriet Jane, daughter of Lieutenant-Colonel Charles Pearson, and leaves a son, Edward, born in 1862, and a daughter. Colonel Grey joined the Rifle Brigade as second lieutenant, December 7, 1854, and served in the Crimea from June 10, 1855, to the end of the war, including the fall of Sebastopol and the attacks on the Redan. Subsequently he was actively engaged during the Indian Mutiny, and was present at the actions at Cawnpore and the capture of Lucknow. He had medals and clasps for both campaigns. He retired from the army in 1864, being then a Captain in the Grenadier Guards, and was promoted to the command of the Northumberland Militia on the retirement of the Duke of Northumberland.

COMMANDER E. HALL, R.N.

This gallant officer died at Chilton on December 14, in his eighty-second year. He entered the navy in April 1806, on board the "Trusty," 50, Captain Brain Hodgson, and, after attending the expedition to Copenhagen and participating in several skirmishes with the batteries and flotilla on the French coast, was employed under Captain George Acklom in making surveys of different forts and harbours in the Cattegat, Baltic, Sound, Great and Little Belt, &c. In 1809 he was present at the capture of Anholt, and in 1811 and 1812 had command of a tender off the ports of Pillau and Dantzig against the enemy's privateers, from which service he was removed for the

express purpose of surveying the river Dwina, preparatory to the employment of English and Russian gunboats at the defence of Riga, where, during the absence of the flag-lieutenant, he officiated as aide-de-camp to Sir Thomas Byam Martin. In the winter of 1812-13 he was selected from the squadron then frozen up at Carlskrona to be the bearer of despatches from Mr. Thornton, the British Minister at Stockholm, to Lord Cathcart, who was at the time at the Imperial headquarters of the Russian army in Poland, and, after continued danger of falling into the hands of the enemy and being treated as a spy, he succeeded in five days in accomplishing his mission. He afterwards acted as aide-de-camp to the Duke of Wurtemberg at the siege of Dantzic. He was promoted to retired commander on September 15, 1867.

LORD KESTEVEN

The Right Hon John Trollope, Baron Kesteven, of Casewick, in the county of Lincoln, died at 6 Cavendish Square on the 17th inst, in his seventy-fifth year. He was born in 1800, the eldest son of Sir John Trollope, sixth baronet, of Casewick, was educated at Eton, and early in life joined the 10th Dragoons, but, soon retiring, he devoted himself to county pursuits, became a J.P. and D.L. for Lincolnshire, served as its high sheriff in 1825, and was chairman of quarter sessions. His lordship, being then Sir John Trollope, Bart (having succeeded his father in 1820), sat, in the Conservative interest, for South Lincoln from 1841 to 1868; was made a Privy Councillor in 1862; and the same year, from February to December, was Chief Commissioner of the Poor Law Board. In 1868 he was raised to the peerage as Baron Kesteven. He married Julia Maria, eldest daughter of Sir Robert Sheffield, Bart., and had three sons and three daughters.

MR. KIERNAN, F.R.S., F.R.C.S.

This eminent anatomist, physiologist, and surgeon died at his residence in Manchester Street on the 31st inst. Mr. Kiernan, who was seventy-four years of age, began his medical studies at St. Bartholomew's Hospital under Mr. Abernethy, and on their completion was admitted a member of the Royal College of Surgeons. On the establishment of the University of London, Mr. Kiernan was chosen a member of the senate, and was

for some time examiner in anatomy and physiology. He was elected on the Council of the Royal College of Surgeons in 1850, and a few years afterwards was appointed one of the examiners and vice-presidents of the college. Mr. Kiernan was best known for his discoveries relative to the structure of the liver, for which he was awarded the Copley medal of the Royal Society.

MR. JOHN MITCHELL

Few names connected with the theatrical and lyrical world of London will be remembered with more respect than that of the librarian of Old Bond Street, who breathed his last on December 11. He was the regular manager of French plays at the St James's Theatre for fifteen years, when the very best artists of Paris appeared in succession, and when the great Mdlle Rachel, first introduced to the British public by Mr. Lumley at Her Majesty's Theatre, brought several seasons to a brilliant close. Before his management the French companies in London were simply migratory and without a home. Another enterprise of Mr. John Mitchell was of a kind perfectly unique. In the winter of 1836 he opened the Lyceum Theatre for the performance of comic Italian operas, which were deemed of too light a character to merit the attention of the larger operatic establishment. To the theatre thus employed he gave the title "Opera Buffa," a name which, save etymologically, has nothing to do with its final equivalent. "L'Elisire d'Amore" was first brought out at the Lyceum, being the first opera buffa selected by Mr. Mitchell.

THE DUKE OF MONTROSE.

James Graham, fourth Duke and seventh Marquis of Montrose, died on December 30 at Cannes, whither he had gone, accompanied by the Duchess, with a view of recruiting his impaired health. He was born in 1799, and married the Hon. Caroline Agnes Beresford, third daughter of John, second Lord Decies, by whom he leaves an only son, Douglas Beresford, Marquis of Buchanan, born 1852, an officer in the Household Brigade, and two daughters. The late Duke succeeded to the family honours on the death of his father in 1836, and it is a remarkable coincidence that he died on the anniversary of his father's death. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge,

where he graduated M.A. in 1819. As Marquis of Graham he represented Cambridge in the two Parliaments preceding the Reform Bill, having for his colleague the late Sir Frederick Trench, and was, at the time, a commissioner of the India Board, he had been a Privy Councillor since 1821. The late Duke was Lord Steward of the Queen's Household during the late Lord Derby's first Administration up to February 1852, and on Lord Derby again taking office in 1858, he filled the office of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and from July 1866 to December 1868, was Postmaster-General. He was elected Chancellor of the University of Glasgow in 1837, and had been Hon. Colonel of the Stirling, Dumbarton, Clackmannan, and Kinross Militia since 1827. He was also a major-general of the Royal Archers, the Queen's body guard in Scotland.

ARCHDEACON ORMEROD.

The Ven. Thomas Johnson Ormerod, late Archdeacon of Suffolk, died on December 2, at Sedbury Park, his residence near Chepstow. He was the son of a distinguished father, Mr George Ormerod, D.C.L. &c, of Sedbury Park, the well-known historian of Cheshire. Born in 1809, he was educated at Brasenose College, Oxford, where he graduated with high honours in 1829. He was ordained by Dr Bagot, then Bishop of Oxford, having been elected a fellow of his college, and was successively appointed Examining Chaplain to the Bishop of Norwich, Select Preacher before the University of Oxford, Rector of Redenhall with Harleston, Norfolk, and finally, in 1846, Archdeacon of Suffolk. This latter post he resigned in 1868. Archdeacon Ormerod was the author of several archidiaconal charges, and also of the articles on the German Reformation in the "Encyclopædia Metropolitana" and "Bible Dictionary." The Archdeacon, who was a magistrate for Norfolk, married in 1838 Maria Susan, eldest daughter of the late Sir Joseph Bailey, of Glanusk Park, Brecon, many years M.P. for the city of Worcester, by whom he left a family.

THE BISHOP OF OSSORY.

The Right Rev. James Thomas O'Brien, D.D., Bishop of Ossory, Ferns and Leighlin, who died at 49 Thurlow Square, London, on December 12, was the senior member of the Irish Episcopal Bench. He was born in Ire-

land in 1792, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, where he gained the gold medal in 1815, and became a fellow of his college. He was afterwards appointed Divinity Lecturer on Archbishop King's Foundation. After holding the livings of Clondehorky and Arboe, Dr O'Brien was, in 1841, nominated to the deanery of Cork, and in 1842 he was offered the bishopric of the united dioceses of Ossory, Ferns, and Leighlin, to which he was consecrated in the college chapel. Dr. O'Brien married, in 1836, the second daughter of the late Right Hon. Edward Pennefather, Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench in Ireland, by whom he had a numerous family.

MR. WATTS PHILLIPS.

The death of this gentleman, which took place on December 2, leaves a gap in the list of our modern dramatists. He did not write very often, and his permanent successes were not very numerous, but the production of a new piece from his pen might always be regarded as an event of the day, for every scene that he wrote was the result of thought, and he never could be accused of frivolity. His first piece, "Joseph Chavigny," was brought out at the old Adelphi Theatre, and was remarkable in a high degree for the cynicism which prevailed, more or less, through all his writings. Although he was much indebted to the French, he was in the main an original writer, his vigorous dialogue was entirely his own, and he could devise situations of singular force. His last piece was "Amos Clarke," brought out with deserved success at the Queen's, but his two leading works are the "Dead Heart," which, produced, and revived, and revived again at the Adelphi, is associated with one of Mr B Webster's most remarkable impersonations, and "Lost in London," which has been played this year at the Princess's. He was born in 1829, and, originally intending to become an artist, he studied under Mr. George Cruikshank. Two books of *quasi*-caricatures, one representing the humours of an election, the other entitled the "Whisky Friend," and pointing a tee-total moral, remain as the result of his early studies, and his letters to his friends were often adorned with pen-and-ink sketches of extraordinary humour.

LORD ROMILLY.

The Right Hon. John, Baron Romilly, of Barwy, in the county of Glamorgan,

who died, on the 23rd inst., in his seventy-third year, was second son of Sir Samuel Romilly, the great jurisconsult, statesman, and philanthropist, and belonged to a French Protestant family, one of the few foreign houses to be found in our peerage. Having graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, he was called to the Bar at Gray's Inn in 1827, and soon acquired practice and reputation as a lawyer. In 1848 he was made Solicitor-General, and knighted, in 1850, Attorney-General, and in 1851, Master of the Rolls. In 1866 he was elevated to the peerage as Baron Romilly. At an early period of life he entered the House of Commons as member for Bridport in the first reformed Parliament, and subsequently, from 1847 to 1852, sat for Devonport. He was sworn of the Privy Council in 1851, and was a bencher of Gray's Inn. Having retired from the Bench, Lord Romilly acted recently as arbitrator in the affairs of the European Assurance Company. He married Caroline Otter, daughter of

the Bishop of Chichester, and was succeeded by his son, William.

THE REV. JOHN MOULTRIE

Before closing our obituary for the year, it must be mentioned that on December 26, died, at the age of seventy-four, the Rev. John Moultrie, who had been rector of Rugby for upwards of forty years, and was well known at one time as the author of some admired poems. "My Brother's Grave" was that by which his reputation was made in early life. He belonged to the young Eton coterie of which Winthrop Praed was one of the most gifted members. With Derwent Coleridge he maintained a life-long intimacy. In the days when Dr. Arnold ruled Rugby School, the rector was a conspicuous personage, and his poems relating to Rugby interests and characters gave him a local celebrity, though they hardly added to the literary estimate he had acquired by his earlier efforts.

REMARKABLE TRIALS.

I.

THE TICHBORNE TRIAL.

RESUMING the summary of this protracted case, the trial of Thomas Castro, alias Arthur Orton, the claimant of the Tichborne estates and title, for perjury committed by him in the action of ejectment he brought to obtain that property, we find that we left Dr. Kenealy, Q.C., on the last day of 1873, speaking on behalf of the defendant. At the next meeting of the court Dr. Kenealy commented on the military evidence adduced for the prosecution, contending that the officers who had given evidence against the defendant had from the first been prejudiced against him. The learned counsel had an amusing controversy with the Lord Chief Justice and the jury, arising out of the contention on his part that, inasmuch as it had not been proved that there were lights in the room when Roger was bled at Canterbury, the operation might have been performed in the dark. The Lord Chief Justice having remarked that no man of common-sense would have attempted the operation without light, Dr. Kenealy said that "common-sense did not always prevail." The Lord Chief Justice's pointed rejoinder, "No, I see that," the learned counsel said he would take no notice of, but would "leave to history." The Tichborne photographs and daguerreotypes were all inspected with regard to Dr. Kenealy's assertion that they showed a pendent ear. But on this point, as a jurymen observed, there were twelve to one against the Doctor, and he vowed never to mention the photographs again.

Next the family evidence passed under review, and the learned counsel's remarks embraced a large number of minute details referring to the mental and physical characteristics of the real Roger Tichborne, and the points of resemblance which he claimed to be discoverable in the plaintiff. The lock of Roger's hair which had been produced by Lady Radcliffe was handed to the jury. The lock of hair from Melipilla, of which so much was heard in the earlier stages of the trial, was also submitted to the jury's inspection. In support of his assertion that the two young Bonapartes—Napoleon and Joseph—had forgotten their native tongue, Dr. Kenealy cited an extract from the "Boys' Journal." He could not supply the Lord Chief Justice with the name of the writer; but his Lordship gave him references to better known authorities, who represented Napoleon at St. Helena to have conversed in Italian with his doctor and attendants. Continuing his analysis of the evidence respecting Roger Tichborne's manners and habits, and, comparing them with those of the defendant, Dr. Kenealy contended that this part of the case was entirely in his

client's favour. He then returned to the tattoo marks, alleging as his reason that some of the jury seemed still to entertain a doubt on the subject, and said that the inventors of these marks were Mr. Bowker, Mr. Seymour, and Lord Bellew. When he began to expatiate on the incredibility of Roger's mother never having heard of "that swelling and sloughing sore" which would result from a tattoo, a matter-of-fact jurymen told him he had not found tattooing a painful operation. From this Dr. Kenealy passed on to a vindication of Bogle.

The analysis of the Tichborne witnesses occupied one whole day. Dr. Kenealy said that no fewer than thirty-five "independent" witnesses, who knew Roger at Tichborne before he finally left England, were called for the defence, and distinctly identified the defendant as the same person. The Crown had only called one independent witness, old John Etheridge, who said the defendant was not Roger. With reference to the alleged resemblance of the defendant to Sir Henry Tichborne, Sir James Tichborne, Sir Edward Doughty, and Lady Tichborne, he said, as there was overwhelming evidence on that subject, and as the Crown had put forward no rebutting testimony, which it was perfectly competent for them to have done, it must be taken that such resemblance was completely and conclusively proved. The learned counsel said that he attached great weight to the testimony of Miss Braine, who, having resided with the defendant and his family for nine months, said he was the same young man whom she knew as Roger Tichborne. Then followed the analysis of the evidence of the other Hampshire witnesses who had identified the defendant with Roger Tichborne, and Dr. Kenealy was proceeding to the South American witnesses, when he was reminded by the Court of the limit fixed for his speech before Christmas. He pleaded urgently for time to "go through his Carabineers," but the Lord Chief Justice answered that he hardly required to individualise them—he might class them together. Under this pressure, he hurried through his South American witnesses, dwelling only for a few minutes on "Captain Brown," and devoting as much of that brief period to the rival Captain Oates, whose Admiralty appointment he regards as proof of the partiality of the Cabinet for the prosecution. He was rebuked by the Lord Chief Justice for insinuating that Mr. Chichester Fortescue had rewarded Captain Oates with a valuable office in consideration of his evidence for the prosecution. He contended that "Captain Brown," although guilty of falsifying a certificate, was nevertheless a truthful witness.

Reviewing next the Carabineer evidence for the defence, Dr. Kenealy steadily pursued his way through the old points—the twitch, the peculiar walk, the loose skin, the good forehead, the dark heavy eyebrows, the broad shoulders, and endless other peculiarities. He also called attention to the number of those witnesses who had declared that they could trace the old French accent even in the present voice of the defendant, though that had been described on the other side as "vulgar Cockney English."

The next point dwelt upon was the evidence relating to the sealed packet left by Roger Tichborne in the hands of Mr. Gosford before his departure from this country more than twenty years ago. The sealed packet episode, Dr. Kenealy observed, was a matter which had excited a great deal of ill-feeling amongst a considerable number of persons against the defendant; and the difficulties of his task were proportionately increased. There were, however, two sides to the picture. Lady Radcliffe had children with whom we all sympathise; so had the defendant. Hence their positions were in some respect equal. He would have preferred to see the matter omitted, but the Lord

Chief Justice pointed out that the story had been made a crucial test in the previous trial and throughout the case; that it was strictly pertinent to the main issue involved, and that, in common justice to the lady attacked, it was most properly included in the indictment. After going through the evidence, oral and documentary, on this point, Dr. Kenealy came to the defendant's own account of it under cross-examination, and dwelling upon his evasive answers and professed ignorance, he said: "It may be retorted upon me that I put my client before you as an evasive, equivocating man. But I cannot help that. Though defending my client on an indictment for perjury, I never have put him before the jury as a model of veracity. . . . On the contrary," he continued, "I have put him before you as Roger Tichborne, a very bad and corrupted man, who had been badly brought up, and educated in utter disregard of the truth."

Before opening his peroration the Doctor made a frank confession about "that scandalous witness he had had the misfortune to call." The theory that Luie had been got up by the defence he spurned as the action of Bedlamites. He declared that his client had been prosecuted with a virulence without example, which he hoped never to see rivalled in this country. He trusted that he should never live to see again every rule of law and practice pressed as it had been in every possible way against the defendant. The prosecution had no sympathy or feeling for him, and they did not care, in some instances, whether they strained the rules of law and evidence against him stronger than these ought to have been. No one, in his opinion, could seriously ask the jury to come to the conclusion that the defendant had perjured himself when they considered the evidence that had been given by Mr. Biddulph, Colonel Norbury, Miss Braine, Lady Tichborne, and others, that his client was Roger Tichborne. After a rhetorical appeal to the jury's reverence for truth and justice, he adjured them, in the name of the spirit of the departed Lady Tichborne, never to lose sight of her in their investigation of the case, and in the name of justice, he demanded an acquittal for Roger Tichborne. A burst of cheers, which was immediately suppressed, followed the conclusion of the learned counsel's speech, which had lasted twenty-three days. The defendant rose and said, "Doctor, I tender you my very sincere thanks for the very able manner in which you have defended me; and I hope I shall soon be able to clear off some of the 600 guineas I am indebted to you."

On the following day, January 15, Mr. Hawkins, Q C, the counsel for the Crown, began to address the jury upon the whole case. He strongly animadverted upon the manner in which the defendant's case had been conducted. "The defendant," he said "through his counsel, in order to extricate himself from the perils by which he was encompassed, has not hesitated to charge the Government of this country, and the responsible advisers of the Crown, with a scandalous and a shameless abuse of the influence and the power which they possess, with wantonly and wickedly lending their aid and the public purse to a prosecution which, upon his own daring assertion alone, he has denounced as one instituted to serve the ends of a private family in order to rob him of his inheritance, and that they have done it without regard to or deference to the interests of justice, for the purpose of crushing, by his condemnation, one they know to be innocent of the crime imputed to him. He has not hesitated, unblushingly and audaciously, to charge that the prosecution had been supported by wholesale bribery, forgery, perjury, and conspiracy induced by the grossest and most corrupt agencies; and in his sweeping and baseless charges

he has accused as perjurers and as conspirators honourable men and women and venerable and reverend gentlemen, who can by law have no other protection against these foul insults except such protection as your verdict can afford them." He begged the jury, however, not to be prejudiced against the defendant by the course his counsel had adopted, but to let their verdict be guided entirely by the evidence.

The learned counsel then proceeded to review the known events of the true Roger Tichborne's early life, and the circumstances of his departure from England and subsequent disappearance. He gave a short account of the course adopted by Lady Tichborne after the death of Sir James to ascertain whether her son Roger was alive, and how afterwards, in the autumn of 1865, the defendant, who was then following the occupation of a butcher at Wagga-Wagga, under the assumed name of Thomas Castro, was boldly put forward as the man who was sought for. The communications he then had with Mr. Gibbes, the attorney, his fraudulent will pretending to deal with the Tichborne property, and all the steps which were afterwards taken to set up this claim, were narrowly examined by Mr. Hawkins, who exposed the numerous blunders, omissions, and marks of ignorance in the defendant's sayings, writings, and doings, to prove that he could not really be the Hampshire baronet's son and heir. The learned counsel pointed out that there were four persons—Guilfoyle, the gardener, Bogle, the valet, and Bogle's two sons, Andrew and John—from whom the defendant might probably have learnt such particulars of the Tichborne family and of Roger Tichborne's life as he was enabled at length to relate. Mr. Hawkins proceeded to argue from a long chain of proofs that the defendant was Arthur Orton, the butcher's son, of Wapping. The evidence of the Wapping witnesses called by the defendant was severely criticised, and much stress was laid on the non-appearance of Orton's sisters, who ought to have declared that the defendant was not their brother. The defendant was called upon, if he were not himself Arthur Orton, to show what had become of that person, whom he said he knew, and to prove where he was now living, or else that he was dead. Mr. Hawkins proceeded next day to comment on the defendant's conduct on arriving in England, his suspicious enquiries and prying at Alresford, where Baigent was hanging about; his interviews with Mr. Gosford when that gentleman forced himself upon him, and the curious circumstances of his visit to Paris and first interview with the Dowager, when that lady found him lying on the bed in the dark room.

At this stage of the speech for the Crown, at the opening of the court on January 21, the Lord Chief Justice called the attention of the court to a letter which appeared in the "Daily News" and other newspapers, purporting to be from Mr. Whalley, the member for Peterborough, in which the writer said:—"As the statements of Detective Clark of what Jean Luie has told him—though denied, as it seems, by Luie himself—may materially prejudice the trial, I consider that I am called upon to state that nothing that has occurred in relation to this man affects my belief that his evidence as to the 'Osprey' is substantially true." This, and a letter to Mr. Hendriks, the former solicitor of the defendant, commenting upon the evidence of Luie, his Lordship considered to amount to a gross contempt of court, and it was accordingly ordered that Mr. Whalley should attend in court to answer the charge.

Mr. Hawkins then proceeded with his review of the defendant's conduct in England, and next turned to the evidence of the old servants and other Tichborne witnesses. Miss Braine he characterised as a "cold-blooded and crafty

person," and could not find language strong enough for his denunciation of her conduct. Next followed the Carabineer witnesses, the weakness of whose evidence in the claimant's favour was well pointed out.

At this stage the learned counsel's speech was again interrupted (January 23) by the appearance in court of Mr. Whalley, M.P., to answer to the charge of contempt of court in writing and publishing the letter before mentioned. Mr. Whalley's counsel, Mr. Morgan Lloyd, Q.C., was instructed to offer the fullest apology, and an affidavit was put in stating that Mr. Whalley had only given the letter for publication to the editor of the "Peterborough Times," who, on his own authority, had sent slips to the London papers. The hon. gentleman protested that his sole object was to vindicate himself with his constituents. After Mr. Lloyd's address, which was frequently interrupted by ejaculations of dissent on the part of his client, the court sentenced Mr. Whalley to pay a fine of 250*l.*, and he was imprisoned until the amount was paid. Immediately afterwards the penalty of imprisonment was withdrawn, "in consideration of Mr. Whalley's position;" but Mr. Whalley having declared his intention to decline payment, the Lord Chief Justice intimated that the imprisonment clause would remain in force. After the hon. gentleman had been refused leave to make a supplementary speech, he withdrew in company of the tipstaff of the court. During the day the fine was paid for him by his sister, and Mr. Whalley, after passing the Friday night in the City prison at Holloway, was released on the Saturday morning.

Resuming his address, Mr. Hawkins entered minutely into the various accounts given by the defendant of his travels in South America, and of his supposed shipwreck; then into the evidence of the perjured witness Luie and the so-called "Captain Brown," and finally, after commenting on the tattoo marks, the "Pittendreigh letters"—that is, the correspondence between the defendant and the wife of one of the clerks of the family attorney, in which the defendant had tried to bribe her to betray the secrets of her husband's employers and to give him private information as to the case on the other side, especially as to the defendant's identity with Orton—and the pretended "recognition" of the claimant by the dowager Lady Tichborne, with regard to which he proved by the evidence of numerous witnesses—some of them her own brothers and sisters, and one of them her own attorney—that she was possessed by an insane delusion that her son was living in Australia, and that she had made up her mind to acknowledge the man who pretended to be her son, no matter whether she recognised him or not, and no matter how wild and false were his statements, he came to the story of the sealed packet. He reminded the jury that the defendant's counsel at the last trial made it a "crucial test" of his client's identity, and staked his cause upon the truth of his story, and how his counsel at the present trial had shrunk from the test, and actually complained of its application. He proved from Roger's letters that the paper given to Mr. Gosford in January, 1852, related to the pledge to build a church if he married his cousin, and that a duplicate of it was given to his cousin herself in June, 1852, on his last visit to Tichborne. He observed that the defendant—who had never so much as mentioned the sealed packet until, in June, 1867, he was challenged with it by Mr. Gosford—confessed that then he "could not remember the contents." He showed how, two months afterwards, when the defendant found that the original had been destroyed (after the news of Roger's death), he then, in ignorance of the existence of a duplicate, gave the version of the paper which connected it with the story of his seduction of his cousin, "in July or August, 1852, at the mill in Cheriton (close to Tichborne), while he was staying at the

house." Mr. Hawkins then showed, by the evidence of seven credible witnesses, confirmed by Roger's letters, that the whole story was false, and that Roger never was at Tichborne at all after June, 1852, when he was there for three days only, in a house full of company. He remarked that not an atom of evidence had been adduced to prove the truth of the defendant's story, which rested entirely on his own oath. He dismissed with contemptuous notice the evidence of the witnesses called to give some sort of colour to the story, and showed that not a single witness had spoken to a solitary act of impropriety or even of familiarity between the cousins during the brief periods they were together at Tichborne. He dealt in a spirit of indignant contempt with the story of the pretended "grotto," and the deceptive photograph of it which had been prepared under the auspices of Mr. Onslow, and produced in court, to back up the evidence about it. Mr. Hawkins here indignantly denounced Mr. Onslow for having, on account of some "dirty pecuniary interest" he had acquired in the case, "lent himself to an unworthy trick to destroy the honour of an English lady." He then, in a strain of impassioned eloquence, repudiated the suggestion of the defendant's counsel that the jury should find no verdict upon this part of the case between Lady Radcliffe and the defendant. They would thus, he said, brand Lady Radcliffe with perjury, or leave upon her character the stigma of having been seduced by him. The learned counsel here solemnly declared that he feared no such result, but felt that her honour and character were safe in their hands. Mr. Hawkins concluded his speech by leaving the case with confidence in the hands of the jury.

On the following day, January 29, the Lord Chief Justice, Sir Alexander Cockburn, commenced his elaborate charge to the jury, which lasted eighteen entire court days. His lordship began by congratulating the jury on having arrived at the last stage of this protracted and, in many respects, painful inquiry, and said he was afraid he should have to draw largely on their time in order to place the case before them in all its bearings and lights, but they had shown such unwearied attention and inexhaustible patience, that he was quite sure they would bear with him. It was a painful case not only as to many issues, but by reason of the course pursued in the conduct of the defence. It was always most distressing to a judge to find himself in conflict with counsel; but, unfortunately, that had been the case in this trial, and it was calculated to create a suspicion of partiality and prejudice in the mind of the judge. When frivolous and intolerable points were taken, the judge had no alternative but to overrule them; and if similar instances were multiplied, either through ignorance of the law, or for what appeared to be the case here—for the purpose of producing an effect on the outside world—and the leading counsel on the other side was treated unfairly, he must also do his duty. The court had again and again to interpose during the address of the learned counsel, in order to correct his misstatements and misrepresentations. When witnesses were misrepresented, facts were perverted, and dates set at naught, and this not by way of argument, but in order to lay the foundation of unjust and base imputations against people; when a torrent of invective and black, foul slime was sent forth to damage the character of men whose reputations had hitherto been without reproach, it was impossible for judges to remain silent. Remarking that usually a word from a judge never failed to keep a counsel within the proper and legitimate limits of the liberty of the bar, he spoke of the disrespect and insult offered to the bench by covert allusions to Jefferies, Scroggs, and other

judges of infamous repute, as if, supposing the spirit of those judges animated them, he would not have been taken by the heels and put to silence. No three judges ever sat on the bench to whom the liberty of the bar was more dear and sacred than it was to his colleagues and himself; but he was sure that the bar would never claim slander as one of their privileges, or consider its restraint as an invasion of their rights. Although the prosecution was instituted by Her Majesty's Government, and carried on in behalf of the Crown, they were told that everyone connected with it—from the highest to the lowest—were engaged in one foul conspiracy, and had resorted to most abominable offences to purchase testimony and corrupt witnesses. Bribery, they were told, had been unhesitatingly used, and witnesses, against whom the worst that could be said was that they were mistaken, were charged with having been bribed, and with perjury. Imputations were cast right and left. One man was called a felon, against whom there was no more ground for a charge of felony than against any of themselves. The authorities of Stonyhurst were charged, without any foundation, with not only not teaching their students morality, but with actually teaching them with a design of corrupting their minds. It was said that under their system youths were brought up as men with the minds of women, involving suggestions of abominations against which one recoiled and shuddered. The dead were served in the same way. Lady Doughty was charged with hypocrisy, because, as alleged, having discovered that her own nephew had attempted or accomplished the seduction of her daughter, she showed him the door with bland smiles and honeyed words. Captain Birkett, who went down with the "Bella," was also charged with having scuttled his ship. He could not have conceived it possible that such serious, foul, and slanderous imputations could have been made in any case, and he felt it the more deeply because the learned counsel, at the outset of his address, had thought proper to parade before them the opinion he (his lordship) expressed on a certain occasion (the Berryer dinner) in the name of the Bar of England, and which received their unanimous approval. Drawing a distinction between the *fas* and the *nefas* of advocacy, he compared the one to the sword of the warrior, the other to the poisoned dagger of the assassin, and the learned counsel, quoting the passage, suggested that Mr. Hawkins had used the dagger of the assassin, than which no more unfounded imputation against a man's professional character had ever been made. It was painful for him to make these observations, but the case imperatively called for them. The proper corrective for such an abuse of the liberty of counsel was censure from the Bench, which he knew would meet, as it deserved to be met, with the universal concurrence of the Bar.

Passing, then, to the real subject of inquiry, his lordship said the first thing to consider were the issues to be determined. The main question was, of course, whether or not the defendant was Roger Tichborne, which was one of the assignments of perjury. There were many subordinate assignments, but they chiefly resolved themselves into that. His lordship then proceeded to lay down with great distinctness the general principles and considerations which should guide the jury. It was difficult to conceive, he said, a more abominable or wicked fraud than that charged against the defendant, or one, if proved, that more deserved all the punishment which the law could award. Observing that in all cases of great impostors the individual who came forward bore some resemblance to the individual personated, he pointed out that (according to the evidence) it was possible that the defendant resembled, in some respects, both

Roger Tichborne and Arthur Orton, and that this might serve to solve many of the difficulties by which the case seemed to be surrounded. Coming to the history of the real Roger Tichborne, his lordship divided it into five important epochs. his life in Paris from his birth to his seventeenth year, his career at Stonyhurst, his preparation for military duties, his three years' service in the army—first in Ireland and then in Canterbury; and finally, his career, as far as known, from his leaving the army at the beginning of the year 1853, down to the loss of the "Bella" in April, 1854, by which he was so long supposed to have perished. After first laying a solid foundation of undoubted fact on the facts and incidents of Roger Tichborne's life as disclosed in his own letters down to the time of his going on board the "Bella," he then took up the story of the defendant, who professed to have been saved from the wreck of the "Bella," and carried to Melbourne in July, 1854, and he dealt with the evidence on both sides as to the identity of the defendant with Arthur Orton. He then dealt fully with the cross-examination of the defendant as to the events and incidents of Roger Tichborne's life, contrasting it with the evidence, especially as to the "crucial test" (as the Claimant's counsel called it at the former trial) of the defendant's story as to the contents of the "sealed packet," which he connected with the supposed seduction. Then the Lord Chief Justice entered into the evidence as to physical marks or peculiarities, natural or artificial, especially as to the bleeding marks on Roger not to be found on the defendant. And lastly, he dealt with the subject of handwriting, spelling, and style, both as showing that the defendant is not Roger Tichborne, and that he is Arthur Orton. It should have been stated in this part of the case that the jury had handed to them by the court photographic facsimiles of the handwriting of Roger Tichborne, of the defendant, and of Arthur Orton, executed by the Stereoscopic Company under the care of Mr. Nottage, the manager, for the purpose of inspection and comparison. The Lord Chief Justice having thus for eighteen days been engaged in an exhaustive exposition of the evidence, on February 28 he succinctly reviewed it, and pointed out its bearing upon the two great primary questions of the case—Is the defendant Roger Tichborne? Is he Arthur Orton? Upon both questions, he said, there was a great body of contradictory evidence of opinion as to identity, but it was necessary to look to all the evidence, and especially to the undoubted facts—to observe the bearing of each part upon the rest, and to consider the case as a whole. There was an undoubted fact that Arthur Orton was some time at Melipilla, and it was also an undoubted fact that the defendant was there. Only one young Englishman had been known there, and the name of Roger Tichborne was unknown there. This appeared from the correspondence of the defendant with his own friend there, Castro. What was the natural inference? No one could suppose that Roger Tichborne would have adopted the name of Arthur Orton. The defendant was there, Arthur Orton was there. What explanation could be adopted but that the defendant was there as Arthur Orton? Then the same man is traced back to Wapping and from Wapping to Hobart Town, and there he was found following the sort of avocations to which Arthur Orton was addicted—those of slaughtering and stock driving. Then there were the undoubted facts that the defendant was at Boisdale in the service of the Fosters, and so was Arthur Orton, and no one was known in their service as Castro, the name by which the defendant said he had gone. There was not only the evidence of several witnesses, but there was the evidence of the books of the

Fosters, showing that no one was known there as Castro, but that Orton only was known. The defendant admitted he was there, and there for a time similar to the period of Orton's service there, only he put it at a different date, and, in order to square with his story of his rescue from the "Bella," he said he had entered their service in July, 1854, and by the name of Castro, whereas the evidence of the books showed that Castro was not known there at all, and that Orton entered the service two years and a half later, at the end of 1856. If so, even waiving the evidence of the witnesses identifying the defendant with Orton—then the whole basis of the defendant's story was destroyed, and he could not be Roger Tichborne, but must be Arthur Orton. Then there was the undoubted evidence of the defendant on coming to England; his secret visit to Wapping to enquire after Orton's sisters, his secret correspondence with them, and his subsequent denial of it; his intimate acquaintance with Wapping people, and numerous other facts of the same nature. Again, there was his ignorance of all that related to the history of the family of Roger Tichborne, shunning all intercourse with the members of the family, his ignorance of the family property, his declarations that he was born in Dorsetshire and educated at Southampton, his denial that he was in the army, or at Stonyhurst, his ignorance even of the Christian names of his supposed mother, and above all, the "crucial test" of his ignorance of the contents of the sealed packet. Let the jury consider the weight of all these undoubted facts in the case, and their bearing on the three great questions involved. Nor was this all. There was the defendant's story about the shipwreck—so absurd that even his own counsel had to abandon it as incredible. Then the story of his escape from the wreck, equally absurd, and admitted to be equally incredible, and the account of his rescue in a ship of which he could not even give the name. Then there was the striking fact that the defendant had admitted that he had had St. Vitus's dance, which Roger never had, but which Arthur Orton had. And there was the fact that the defendant for twelve years had lived a coarse and wretched life, natural enough to Arthur Orton, but repulsive to Roger Tichborne—possessed of 1,000*l* a year, and the heir of a baronetcy and 20,000*l* a year.

The Lord Chief Justice then proceeded to lay down his views of the duty both of judge and jury in such a case as the present. He had himself been accused of partiality and onesidedness, but, he said, "I cannot invent facts, and I cannot, with the utmost effort of ingenuity, invent explanations or find explanations which have no reality in point of fact. In my opinion, a judge does not discharge his duty who contents himself with being a mere recipient of evidence which he is afterwards to reproduce to the jury, without pointing out the weight of the facts, and the inferences to which they properly and legitimately give rise. It is the business of the judge to adjust the scales and the balance that they shall hang evenly; but it is his duty to see that the facts as they arise are placed in the one scale or the other, according as they belong to the one or to the other. It is his business to take care that the inferences which properly arise from the facts are submitted to the consideration of the jury, with the happy consciousness that if he goes wrong there is the judgment of twelve men having experience in the everyday concerns of life to set right anything in respect of which he may have been wrong. But if the facts are such that, placed in the scale to which they respectively belong, the one scale kicks the beam and the other goes down, the fault is in the nature of things, and not in the conduct of the judge." Addressing the jury, he continued, "You must take care that the innocent do not suffer; but you owe it to society

to take care, if guilt is brought home to the accused, that guilt should carry with it the consequences of your verdict. Gentlemen, you have been asked to give the defendant the benefit of any doubts which you may entertain. Most assuredly it is your duty to do so. It is the business of the prosecution to bring home guilt to the accused to the satisfaction of the mind of the jury; without which the accused is entitled to the benefit of any doubts that may exist. But they must be doubts that rational, thinking, and sensible men may fairly and reasonably entertain—not the doubts of a vacillating mind that has not the moral courage to decide, but shelters itself in a vague and idle scepticism. It is not that; it must be doubts which honest and conscientious men may entertain. Gentlemen, we have been addressed in language the like of which has never before been heard within these walls. You have been told, gentlemen, that if any one entertained a different opinion from his fellow-jurors, he should obstinately and blindly follow that opinion without taking any pains to search and analyse the causes and justifications of such difference. Gentlemen, I never before heard such a doctrine addressed to a jury, and therefore I am obliged to express my judicial sense of the remarks that have been made—not that I believe there is any necessity for warning you against a doctrine which, if followed, must lead to the most mischievous consequences. But, as it has been propounded, I feel bound to advert to it. I must say, at the same time, that I should be the last man to suggest to any member of the jury that, if he entertains a serious conviction, he should not obey it even if he stood alone against eleven of his fellow-jurors; that he should stifle the firm and unalterable conviction of his own mind, and thus neutralise the law, which requires that the verdict should represent the unanimous opinion of twelve men, by whom the opinion guilty or not guilty should be ultimately pronounced;—I say that if a man is satisfied, after having given the case every attention, that he cannot find a verdict in accordance with his fellow-jurors, then in that case he is right to stand fast by his conviction. But, then, he must recollect that he has a duty to perform, and that is, to give the case the most solemn and serious consideration before he determines on his course. He must start with the fair presumption that he, being one individual, is more likely to be wrong than the eleven men from whom he differs. He should bear in mind that the great purpose of trial by jury is to produce unanimity of verdict, and thus to prevent the necessity for further and ruinous litigation. He should address himself in all humility and diffidence as to his own judgment to his task, and carefully consider all the facts which his colleagues are able to propose in opposition to his opinion. He should let no self-conceit, no vainglorious assumption of superiority on his part, stand in the way of the most careful consideration of the grounds upon which the rest of the jury entertain views differing from his. All I wish to impress on you—and not so much upon you as upon the whole question of trial by jury—is that when a man stands out alone against his fellows, he is bound to do his best to satisfy his mind that justice, good sense, and sound judgment are not with the majority instead of with the few or with the single dissentient. That is a duty which every jurymen owes to justice and to his country, and therefore must I protest against any attempt to encourage a single jurymen to stand out resolutely and obstinately and with a fixed determination against the large majority of his fellow-jurors. If such suggestions as these to which I have alluded were to be made by counsel and acted upon, and this great trial rendered abortive through no verdict being pronounced, not only would a recommence-

ment of a long, protracted litigation be rendered necessary, but the result would be to make the whole system of trial by jury not a blessing, but a curse, and an insuperable obstacle to the fair administration of justice; and it must lead to a modification in our procedure, which I for one should not wish to see introduced. I have long thought that a jury assisted by a judge was a much better security for the administration of justice than a judge unassisted by a jury; but I am perfectly satisfied that the business of a judge is to assist the jury by placing the whole case before them, by pointing out the facts, as I have done, as a result of which I trust you will be able to pronounce—which-ever way—a unanimous verdict, so as to put an end to litigation, to avoid further expense, and to put an end to that dissatisfaction in the public mind which would arise from so protracted an investigation being in the end rendered abortive. If this investigation should end in a disagreement, some change in the system of trial would be called for, which I should deprecate and deplore, even although its necessity had become undoubted."

His Lordship proceeded to animadvert on the threat held out in the speech of the counsel for the defendant, that he would write the history of the case, and state that during the trial many things had occurred which would sully the names of certain individuals, from the highest to the lowest. "It would be idle affectation," continued his lordship, "to pretend not to know to whom this language connected with infamy and dishonour was addressed, and whose name was to be blurred for the future. I ask is this the way in which counsel ought to speak of a tribunal such as this? I am sure I shall receive but one response to that question from the body I see before me. . . . Gentlemen, the history of this case may be written hereafter, and, for aught I know, by a pen steeped in gall and venom, that may not scruple to lampoon the living and calumniate the dead. I have no fears. The facts speak for themselves. I have administered justice here for many years. I cannot hope that my memory, like that of the great and illustrious men who have gone before me, will live in after ages; but I do hope it will live in the remembrance—may I venture to say the affectionate remembrance?—of a generation before whom and with whom I have administered justice here. And if my name shall be traduced, if my conduct shall be reviled, if my integrity shall be questioned, I leave the protection of my judicial memory to the bar of England, my relations with whom have never till this trial been in the slightest degree other than the most pleasant, and constitute, I may say, the happiness of my judicial life. Gentlemen, I have done. I have discharged my duty to the best of my ability. It only remains that you shall do yours, and I am sure that the verdict which you pronounce will be received by all except fools and fanatics as the judgment of twelve men who have brought to the consideration of this great case the utmost and most vigilant attention, the most marked—I may say remarkable—intelligence, and the most sincere desire to discharge their duty before God and man, according to what in their hearts and souls they believe to be the truth and justice of the case."

The other Judges, Mr. Justice Mellor and Mr. Justice Lush, briefly expressed their entire concurrence in what had been said by the Lord Chief Justice, and the jury then—about noon—retired to consider their verdict. They were absent less than half-an-hour, and on their return into court the foreman, in a firm tone, declared that they found the defendant guilty, and he then read from a written paper the verdict, as follows:—"We find, first, that the defendant is not Roger Charles Doughty Tichborne; secondly, we find that the defendant

did not seduce Miss Catherine Doughty, now Lady Radcliffe, and further, we find that there is not the slightest evidence that Roger Charles Doughty Tichborne was ever guilty of undue familiarity with his cousin Lady Radcliffe on any occasion whatever; thirdly, we find that the defendant is Arthur Orton."

The Lord Chief Justice: That disposes of all the issues.

The foreman then handed to the Lord Chief Justice a written paper prepared by the jury, and asked the opinion of the court whether it was a proper one to read.

The Lord Chief Justice: Yes, I think it is quite right. This is the general opinion of you all?

The foreman: Yes, my Lord, the general opinion of us all.

The Lord Chief Justice thereupon read the paper, which was in these terms—"The jury desire to express their opinion that the charges of bribery, conspiracy, and undue influence brought against the prosecution in this case are entirely devoid of foundation; and they regret exceedingly the violent language and demeanour of the leading counsel for the defendant in his attacks upon the conduct of the prosecution and upon several of the witnesses produced in the case."

The defendant having been ordered to stand up, Mr Justice Mellor pronounced the sentence of the court upon him as follows:—

Thomas Castro, otherwise called Arthur Orton, otherwise called Roger Charles Doughty Tichborne, Baronet, after a trial of unexampled duration, you have been convicted by the jury of the several perjuries charged in the counts of this indictment, and which were truly described by your counsel as "crimes as black and foul as justice ever raised her sword to strike." In the trial of your case the jury have exhibited a care, a patience, and an intelligence never surpassed—indeed, it was such as to extort expressions of admiration from your own counsel, and their verdict meets with the unanimous approval of the court. Indeed, it is difficult to conceive how any person who has considered the intrinsic improbabilities of your story, and has intelligently considered the evidence which has been adduced in the course of this trial, could have come to any other conclusion. The testimony of individuals, however numerous or respectable they may be, to your personal identity with either Arthur Orton or Roger Tichborne is comparatively of little worth after so great a lapse of time, except in the instances in which there existed special interest to observe and remember you. Of course the evidence of Miss Loder, of the family of Roger Tichborne, and of Mr. Gosford is of great importance in this case, and when I mention the name of Mr. Gosford I pause for a moment—speaking for myself at all events—to say that he has placed public justice greatly in his debt. Your entire ignorance of the native tongue of Roger Tichborne, coupled with at least the partial acquisition of another language, the tattoo marks which were proved to have existed on the arm of the undoubted Roger Tichborne, and his genuine letters and the letters written by you, whether in the character of Roger Tichborne or Arthur Orton, the admissions expressly made or implied in your conduct, and all that is known of the history of the life and character of Roger Tichborne and of yourself, present an accumulation of proof such as can rarely be given in a court of justice, and which conclusively demonstrates the propriety of the verdict of the jury. No man can look with an unprejudiced mind and a clear observation at the letters of the undoubted Roger Tichborne without coming to the conclusion that they were never written by you, while between the undoubted letters of Arthur Orton and your own there is evidence of

identity most complete and convincing. Of what avail could the negative evidence of your identity with Arthur Orton be against the circumstances connected with your visit to Wapping, with your assumption of a false name, and your correspondence and dealings with the family of Arthur Orton, added to the fact that your counsel did not venture to put into the box Arthur Orton's sisters, who from the very first were in your interest, who had received money from you, and had made affidavits in your favour? The inference from your not calling them is irresistible—namely, that they were possessed of knowledge which must have tended strongly to prove your identity with Arthur Orton. That question, important as it is, is only material as affording one of the modes of proof that you are not and cannot be Roger Tichborne. Whether you originally conceived and planned the entire scheme which you ultimately carried out I know not. The marvellous growth and development of your knowledge as to the circumstances connected with the history of Roger Tichborne and his military life leave it uncertain whether your original design was not enlarged by reason of the ease with which you found people so ready to become your dupes, and I fear in some cases your accomplices. However that may be, in the carrying out of your scheme you hesitated at no amount of perjury and fraud which you thought to be necessary to its success. Wicked and nefarious as it was to impose yourself upon society as Roger Charles Tichborne, and to attempt to deprive the lawful heir of his inheritance, that offence sinks almost into insignificance when compared with the still more infamous perjury by which you sought to support your scheme. I refer to your attempt to blast the reputation of Lady Radcliffe. No more foul or deliberate falsehood was ever heard in a court of justice. I can hardly restrain the indignation which I feel at the incredible baseness of your conduct in that respect. Happily the means of refuting that cowardly calumny were immediately at hand, and never was a charge so completely shattered and exposed as was that. It is not, however, because the refutation of the falsehood was singularly easy and complete that the baseness of your conduct is diminished. I believe I am speaking the sentiment of every member of the court when I say that the punishment about to be assigned by the court is wholly inadequate to your offence. The framers of the Act of Parliament that fixes and limits the sentence which the court is authorised to pass upon you never dreamt of circumstances so aggravated as exist in your case. The sentence of the court which I now pronounce is that for the perjury alleged in the first count of this indictment upon which you have been convicted you be kept in penal servitude for the term of seven years, and that for the perjury alleged in the second count of this indictment of which you have also been convicted, you be kept in penal servitude for the further term of seven years, to commence immediately upon the expiration of the term of penal servitude assigned to you in respect of your conviction upon the first count of this indictment, and that is the sentence of the court.

The defendant: May I be allowed to say a few words?

The Lord Chief Justice: No.

The defendant then shook hands with his leading counsel, Dr. Kenealy, and was immediately afterwards removed from the court in the custody of Mr. Frayling, jun., the tipstaff, and conveyed to Newgate.

Thus at length ended this remarkable *cause célèbre*; remarkable, not more for the unparalleled audacity of the Australian butcher, noted for his huge size and his vulgar illiterateness, who undertook to personate the son of an old and aristocratic English family, last known as a slim young man fresh from a

classical education at Stonyhurst, and from the companionship of the officers of the Carabineer regiment, than for the credulity with which some of those very officers, and not a few other individuals who had known the real Roger Tichborne (not to mention the young man's mother, who appears to have been almost crazed on the subject), were taken in to believe his tale, and by their evidence in his favour to persuade thousands of the outside world that the claimant was in reality an aggrieved baronet, unjustly kept out of his rights by a family cabal. In our report for 1871 we have given an account of the early history of the case, and followed briefly the long windings of the Solicitor-General's celebrated cross-examination of the plaintiff, in 1872 we gave a short summary of the speech for the defence by the same learned counsel (at that time Attorney-General, and now Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas), and reported the sudden conclusion of the case, after the examination of a few witnesses on the same side, by the jury expressing themselves satisfied without further evidence of the falsity of the claim, upon which the plaintiff was non-suited. The case could not be left here. If the plaintiff was not the baronet he had asserted himself to be, he was, to use the strong language of Sir John Coleridge, "a conspirator, a perjurer, a forger, a slanderer, and a villain." The Lord Chief Justice accordingly directed that he should be prosecuted for perjury at the Central Criminal Court. Strange to say, in spite of the overwhelming evidence against him that had been brought forward at the trial, the claimant still found a strong party to support him. Bail was raised for him to the amount of 10,000*l.*, and in the interval which elapsed before the trial for perjury could commence, the claimant was able to go about the country under the patronage of Mr. Guildford Onslow and others, getting up and speaking at public meetings, and was by no means unsuccessful in gaining the popular sympathy, and in raising funds for his defence. Thus once more, in 1873, the pages of our volume devoted to "Remarkable Trials" were almost entirely filled with the report of this second "Tichborne Case," and this year again, but now, we hope, for the last time, we have attempted to condense into comparative briefness the lengthy speeches which have occupied so many columns of the daily and weekly papers;—an idea of the length to which they extended may be gathered from the fact mentioned in the "Times" that the Lord Chief Justice's charge alone occupied 180 of its columns.

The conduct of the counsel for the defendant in this trial, Dr. Kenealy, Q C, having frequently called for serious reproof from the Lord Chief Justice, and met with the general disapprobation of the public, at a meeting of the members of the bar of the Oxford Circuit, of which he is a member, held at Gloucester on April 2, it was decided to exclude him from the bar mess.

The benchers of Gray's Inn also instituted an inquiry, which was conducted with closed doors, into Dr. Kenealy's conduct as editor of the "Englishman" newspaper. They issued, on August 1, a report of their proceedings, as well as a copy of the resolutions passed by them. Mr. Bradley, printer of the paper, was summoned to attend, but this gentleman wrote "regretting that his position as a printer would render his attendance an indefensible proceeding on his part, and he was *obliged*, therefore, to be absent." Mrs. Kenealy wrote stating that Dr. Kenealy intended to have been present in person; having been seized, however, with violent pains in the head, he could not appear. He therefore "left the Masters of the Bench to act as their own desire of honour, right, and justice might dictate." Seventeen numbers of the "Englishman" having been perused by the Benchers, the following resolution was carried unanimously:—

Moved by Mr. Manisty, seconded by the Solicitor-General:—1. That Dr. Kenealy is editor of the “Englishman.” 2. That the “Englishman” is replete with libels of the grossest character. 3. That Dr. Kenealy, being editor of the newspaper, is unfit to be a Master of the Bench of this honourable Society. 4. That the call of Dr. Kenealy to this Bench be hereby vacated. 5. That Dr. Kenealy be prohibited from dining in the hall of this Society until further orders. 6. That the future consideration of this matter, as well as the consideration of several other charges which Dr. Kenealy has been called upon to answer, be postponed to a future session, to be hereafter appointed. 7. That a copy of the proceedings of the Bench be sent to Dr. Kenealy, also that a copy be preserved in the hall of the Inn, and that a copy be sent to the treasurer of each of the other Inns of Court.

The publication of the “Englishman,” however, continued in the same strain. The Bench, the Bar, Cabinet ministers, and many other eminent persons were scurrilously attacked. Of the Benchers it was written—“Where ever the English language is spoken and this paper is read, they will be spat upon by every lover of truth and justice. If the learned professions in England were weeded out, probably the equals of these men in ignorance, meanness, and vulgarity could not be found.” The Lord Chief Justice was compared to Scroggs and Jefferies; the judges, and several other gentlemen were described as capable of any shame, and in a host of ways imputations were thrown broadcast. Dr. Kenealy’s conduct as editor was again taken into consideration by the Benchers of Gray’s Inn on Dec. 2, and the following resolution was moved by Master Manisty, seconded by Master Holker, and carried unanimously:—“That in the opinion of this Bench, Dr. Kenealy, being the editor of the newspaper called the ‘Englishman,’ replete as it still is with libels of the grossest character, is unfit to be a member of this honourable Society or the public Bar.” It was further moved by Master Manisty, seconded by Master Holker, and carried unanimously.—“That Dr. Kenealy’s call to the Bar be and the same is hereby vacated, that he be expelled from this society, and his name erased from the roll of the members thereof.” By this disbarment Dr. Kenealy loses the benefit of dining in the hall, loses a set of chambers in the Inn which he has hitherto enjoyed rent free, and cannot hold a brief nor practise before the courts of law. His name was also struck out of the list of Queen’s Counsel.

II.

TRIAL OF JEAN LUIE, ALIAS LUNGREN.

THIS was a trial for perjury committed in the evidence given on the Tichborne trial, and also for bigamy. Jean Lue, it will be remembered, came forward as having been mate or steward of the “Osprey,” but in the course of his evidence witnesses appeared to prove that his story was false, and that he had passed at different times under various aliases.¹ One young woman claimed him as her husband under the name of Carl Lungren. He was accordingly examined at the Bow Street Court, and committed both for perjury and bigamy. The following evidence was given in support of the charge of bigamy:—Emma Bleach,

¹ See *Annual Register* for 1873, pp. 207–215.

wife of a clerk in the Pension Department, Woolwich Dockyard, said:—The prisoner married my sister on April 2, 1855, in the parish church. I knew him by the name of Carl Peter Lungren. The second day of their marriage they came to London, and lived at No. 1 Tichborne Street. They afterwards went back to see my father, and he was afterwards clerk to Cary and Sons, Cardiff. I remember his being at Bristol. I remember also his being arrested and tried, and it was in 1859 when he was convicted. My sister is still alive, living at Bristol. Harriet Arend deposed to having herself been married to the prisoner, who then bore the name of Captain John Smith, in April, 1867. A fresh charge of perjury was preferred against the prisoner in consequence of a statement by him that, whilst staying at the house of Mr. Pulleyn, in Newington Butts, he had paid his own expenses, whereas the money had really come from another source. The evidence of Mr. Pulleyn was to the effect that he knew the person now on his trial at Westminster. He had nothing to do with the trial, but he managed the Claimant's public meetings. Prior to the trial Mr. Guildford Onslow and Mr. Whalley attended those meetings. He knew the prisoner Luie, who lived at witness's house from July 7, 1873, till the day of his examination in the Tichborne trial. He then left the house, but continued to pay the rent. Luie, it was believed, then went to live at Mr. Rimell's, at Finchley, but he occasionally called at witness's house. The papers that were found there belonged to Luie, and were given up to Inspector Clarke. Witness first saw the prisoner Luie at 2 Poet's Corner, the office of Mr. Hendriks, on July 7. He was at the office when witness arrived. He said he was waiting to see Mr. Hendriks. This was about nine o'clock in the morning. Mr. O'Brien, a clerk, arrived; they conversed together, and witness afterwards saw Mr. Hendriks with Mr. Whalley with Luie, while the clerk was writing down his statement. Mr. O'Brien, Mr. White, and Luie all went together to the Claimant's residence, and then returned to the office. The Claimant and Mr. Hendriks were present, and witness was asked by them to accommodate Luie in his house. He arranged with them to receive Luie, and took him home the same day. He afterwards read the statement which had been taken down by Mr. O'Brien. No exact terms were named, but he was to have 3*l.* 10*s.* for boarding, lodging, and supplying what he wanted and giving him pocket-money "within reason." Witness paid for everything that Luie had, put no restraint upon him, and took him to places of amusement. He found him in tobacco and spirits and other things. He had made an entry of the sums received on Luie's account. Up to August 11—twenty-two days—he received 21*l.* for board and lodging, 3*l.* 10*s.* for wearing apparel, and 5*l.* for pocket-money. When he first came to witness, Luie had nothing but what he stood upright in. He had neither money nor luggage. He received for the first five weeks the sum of 29*l.* 10*s.* altogether, and for the following five weeks he had about 28*l.* The Claimant paid the money. For the five weeks up to October 13 the amount came to 21*l.*, and witness had only received 10*l.* of that sum. From first to last he never received a farthing from the prisoner. Mr. Poland said there would be a specific allegation of perjury in reference to the statement by the prisoner at the trial, that he lived on his own means, and paid his own expenses while living at Pulleyn's, and that he only stipulated that he should be paid for his time if he was detained in this country. Witness continued—He went with me to several towns—Coventry, Bedford, Chelmsford, and other places. He travelled with me, and I paid for his railway fares out of the general receipts of the meeting. The Claimant sometimes accompanied us, but

he usually travelled separately. Messrs. Onslow and Whalley travelled separately also. Luie did not do anything at these meetings. I took him with me because I did not like to leave him at home. My wife travelled with me. Mr. Poland: Was there any special reason for your not leaving him at home? Witness No; except that I thought it best to take him with us, rather than leave him at home with the children. He never did any work all the time he was with me. He sometimes amused himself in the garden. I remember the day before his examination, October 13. He had not said anything about leaving my lodgings. In the evening, after he had given his evidence at Westminster, he told me he had received 5*l* from Mr Whalley. He showed me a document, and left it in my charge. He said it was worth above 100*l*. to him. Inspector Clarke took possession of the document, and also of the prisoner's clothes. Mr. Poland requested the clerk to read the document referred to, which was as follows:—

“Testimonial to Jean Luie, late Steward of the ‘Osprey.’

“This is to certify, on my own part, and on the part of all who have known Jean Luie in relation to the Tichborne case, that he has shown himself to be a man of thorough honesty and great intelligence, and that he has borne himself through all his life as a man entitled to confidence and respect. He has been exposed to great difficulties, harassment, and temptation through this affair, and has remained staunch and true, and has rendered very great service to Sir Roger Tichborne.

“G. H. WHALLEY, M.P.

“GUILDFORD ONSLOW, M.P.”

Witness was then cross-examined respecting the statement made by Luie in his examination. He said—I was in court during the examination of Luie, and heard him say that he paid 30*s*. a week for his lodgings. I think I was present when he described himself, on oath, as a gentleman of independent means. I heard Mr Hawkins's cross-examination of Luie respecting me and my occupation “as a bill-sticker.” I heard Luie say that he paid for his own lodgings and board at my house out of his own means. I heard him say that he had offered to pay me, but that I said he was to settle up when the trial was over. The whole of this was perjury. I did not interrupt the trial. I told Luie and also the Claimant that it was perjury. I did not tell anyone connected with the prosecution till I was subpoenaed. I expressed my dissatisfaction, and that was why he left my house. I was not in communication with the counsel for the Claimant, but I think I mentioned it to Mr Harcourt, his solicitor, as well as to himself. I cannot say that I was aware that it was perjury, although I knew it was a wrong statement. I had money of the Claimant's on account, and I paid myself out of it. I did not give it a thought that it amounted to perjury. He came to my house repeatedly after this, and dined with my family. I did not think that much harm was done, and I supposed he would correct it. I spoke to Luie about his misstatements directly he came out of court, and asked him why he had said that he paid for himself. He said that he thought it looked better. After leaving me, Luie went to reside with Mr. Rimell, who, I think, is a silversmith. The prisoner said he was invited there.

At the next hearing of the case, Mr. E Lewis, in a long speech on behalf of the accused, said that Luie was the son of a wealthy shipowner now dead,

and had occupied the position of a gentleman; he had conversed with him in three modern languages and had found him proficient in mathematics. The learned gentleman examined Charles Janes, and said he had eleven other witnesses to call for the defence, who were not then ready. There was consequently a further adjournment till Thursday. On that day, the case was again before the magistrate, and Mr. Whalley was examined at some length, giving an account of his interviews and correspondence with Luie, and of his visit to America for the purpose of collecting evidence to help the Claimant.

Mr. Whalley, late M.P. for Peterborough, was then examined and gave the following evidence:—

I first became acquainted with Luie on July 7 of last year at the office of the claimant's solicitor, 2 Poet's Corner. Mr. O'Brien, the law student, was also present, and two or three clerks. I had never seen the prisoner before. It is not true that I met him at Brussels in the spring of that year. I had no knowledge whatever of the statement he was going to make. After the statement was taken, I think the prisoner said he should like to see the Claimant. While arrangements were being made for that purpose, such as getting a cab and packing up the papers, I asked the prisoner whether he thought the Claimant would recognise him. He replied, "I should think he ought to do so, considering that I nursed him for three months." After a pause he broke out, "Yes, I'll tell you how he'll recognise me—by that crooked finger." He held out his hand. In reply to my question "Why?" he said, "That crooked finger used to drive him nearly mad, as I used to rub the back of his neck for sunstroke." He explained that the finger scratched him. The cab arrived, and Mr. O'Brien, the prisoner, and I got into it. We then proceeded to Bessborough Gardens, the house of the Claimant. I did not hear Luie say he had been there before. When we arrived I went into the Claimant's house first. I found the Claimant suffering from dysipelas. He was reclining. I having told him we had brought an important witness to identify him, the Claimant expressed reluctance to see anyone on account of his severe indisposition, but on my urging the importance of it, he consented, and Mr. O'Brien and the prisoner came in. On the prisoner entering the room he walked up to within about three or four yards of where the Claimant was reclining, and looked very steadily at him for some time. The first words I remember the prisoner to have said were, "Yes, that is the man," or words to that effect. Upon that some conversation which I cannot call to mind, took place between the prisoner and the Claimant, and the former went over to the other direct, and with great show of feeling—tears coming into his eyes in fact—shook hands with him, and asserting that he was as certain as of his life that he was the man, and he would stand for him and do all he could on his behalf. Mr. Lewis:—Was the recognition mutual?—I could not possibly say if the Claimant recognised him then. He recognised him as he had other witnesses, with caution and reticence—with no warmth of feeling. In speaking of some of the companions of the wreck, who were Spaniards, there was some reference made to language, and to the best of my recollection it was in respect to that part of the conversation that the Claimant said, "Como esta, Luie?" I know the Claimant did address to him those words, but I won't swear it was under those circumstances.—After some further evidence describing his visit to America, Mr. Whalley said.—In consequence of the inquiries I made at Quebec and New York I addressed a letter to the solicitor of the Claimant. This letter has appeared in the newspapers, for which I have had to suffer some inconvenience— Sir Thomas

Henry.—Be good enough, Mr. Whalley, not to make observations in the witness-box. Witness continued.—I obtained information as to the clearance of vessels, and communicated that also to the Claimant's solicitor. I communicated with other persons, and can state what it was if I am asked.—In cross-examination by Mr. Poland, the witness said, it had been his desire that Luie should return to America in order that he might there continue inquiries bearing on the case.

The case was then adjourned till after the conclusion of the trial of the claimant. On March 5 the prisoner was again brought up. When Sir Thomas Henry had taken his seat, Luie's legal adviser said that he applied originally for the adjournment of the case in order that the late defendant in the trial at bar might now be called to give evidence in Luie's favour, and be bound over to give evidence. Matters had since occurred which had rendered that unnecessary, for the late Claimant could be produced at the trial if required. Mr. Poland then applied for the prisoner's committal on both charges. Sir Thomas Henry at once acceded to this request, and Luie was removed to Newgate.

On April 9, Jean Luie was brought to trial at the Central Criminal Court, before Mr. Justice Brett, on the charge of perjury in the evidence given by him in the Tichborne trial, and also for bigamy. Mr. Warner Sleigh renewed his application for an adjournment until next session, on the ground of there not being sufficient time for counsel to master the facts of the case. The learned judge, however, said he did not consider the application to be a *bonâ fide* one, and therefore declined to accede to it. Thereupon Mr. Poland opened the case for the prosecution, and the Court proceeded to take evidence against Luie, who, throughout the hearing, was undefended by counsel. The prisoner, thus left to himself, cross-examined some of the witnesses with considerable dexterity, while he declared his perfect ignorance of others who deposed to his identity. Some of the questions to Inspector Clarke appeared to convey the suggestion that the inspector had prompted parts of the confession made by Luie to him, and already detailed at Bow Street. At the close of the case for the prosecution, Mr. Whalley, M.P., volunteered his testimony in the prisoner's favour, and expressed his belief that the "Osprey" incident, as related by Luie, was true.

The Judge, then addressing the prisoner, said :—Now, tell your own story. The great charge against you is that you swore that you were on board the "Osprey," and that you picked up the boat. It is said that that is untrue, and of course if it were untrue you knew that it was so. They (the prosecution) have proved that it was untrue, because they have proved that you were in England at the time. That is the first great charge against you. The next charge is that you gave evidence that you were not in England till shortly before the trial, whereas they have proved that you were in England for many years before. Those charges are what you have to answer for before the jury. Prisoner.—Well, my lord, during my cross-examination in the Court of Queen's Bench, I objected to questions of Mr. Hawkins respecting the latest period of my life, in consequence of a misfortune that I was really led into; but the Lord Chief Justice ordered me to answer the questions. I was compelled to do so, and I did it as it came into my mind at the time. Numbers of witnesses have been called here against me as to the period of 1853 and 1854, one, according to his account, being himself a schoolfellow of mine. How is it possible for me to contradict these men when I am void entirely of assistance, either

legal assistance, or assistance of people whom I should have been able to bring forward? If I had time I should prove that they are mistaken—entirely mistaken—in the identity. It requires in fact a wonderful memory for anyone to distinguish one man from another after a period of over twenty years' time, and especially when you have a man only just come into court to discern an individual. Had I been able to be defended, and produced witnesses, it would certainly have substantiated my story to a great extent. Of course in the later periods of 1862 and 1867 misfortunes have fallen to my lot. That undoubtedly is true, but respecting the time of 1852, 1853, and 1854 there is no truth whatever in what has been said. I don't say that people have perjured themselves, because if they had perjured themselves a vast number of witnesses who have been brought against Roger Tichborne must be as bad as they are in that respect. But I say I have been the sole victim of prosecution, from a number of people amounting to nearly 300. I think it is very hard indeed that I should suffer the inconvenience in which I am placed. It can be proved, and will in time come out, that the "Osprey" which I joined at New Orleans in 1852, and was with her up to the end of 1854, is a fact undoubtedly, and it will be found to be true. Time will tell that, and it should have been proved satisfactorily both to your lordship and the jury if I had had that ample means given me which I now stand in need of. Had it not been for the misfortune of this bigamy affair of mine, I certainly should never have given the account which I have given, because I stood in the position that whatever turn I took, when it came to the period from 1855 to 1867, whether I admitted that or made any false statement or not, it would have fallen to my lot to be punished. I am very sorry that this has taken up the time so long, keeping your lordship and the jury for such a length of time through the calling of all these witnesses, since I am not in a position now to bring forward evidence in support of my story. Very sorry, indeed, I am, but I trust that the time will come soon enough to prove my story and the fact of the "Osprey" in 1854. At the same time, I beg his lordship to be as lenient in his punishment towards me as possible, bearing in mind that I have still eighteen or nineteen months to be under servitude.

On the following day, Mr. Justice Brett proceeded to sum up the case. His lordship carefully went over the evidence in detail, after which he remarked on the prisoner's statement that Mr. Whalley had said to him at Brussels that a trial was going on in England which made him ashamed of his country. Why Mr. Whalley should be ashamed of his country on this account he certainly could not see. The prisoner also represented that Mr. Whalley said that one difficulty they had to contend against was that they could not find any men who had picked up a shipwrecked crew. Sitting on that bench, he had no hesitation in saying that if Mr. Whalley, either from folly or wickedness, or both, really did make this statement, he was giving an incitement to perjury. His lordship then referred to the statements of the prisoner with regard to Mr. Whalley and Mr. Onslow, and his representation that he should not have gone into the witness-box, if Mr. Onslow had not compelled him to do so. He did not say that this story was true, but all he could say was that if it was true, the prisoner was not the only person who ought to be put on his trial, as a conspiracy evidently existed to commit a serious offence. If the prisoner's story was true, it amounted to an admission that he was guilty of perjury, and if it was not true, and he had made those false statements against other parties, what could they think of a man who could act in such a manner? His lord-

ship said he had now arrived at what was a painful part of the case, and one which satisfied him, with other matters, that there never was any real intention on the part of those who were called the prisoner's friends, to defend him. He had no hesitation in saying that Mr. Whalley had obtruded himself as a witness for the prisoner. He was asked in derision by the learned counsel for the prosecution, whether he was not a magistrate of two counties and also a barrister, and if he had had the slightest knowledge of even the elements of law, he must have known perfectly well that he could not give any evidence that would be of the slightest benefit to the prisoner. It might have the effect of showing sympathy—it might have afforded an opportunity for giving an explanation upon any particular matter, but he must have known that he could not say anything that was likely to be of any use to the prisoner, and his evidence gave the counsel for the prosecution a right to reply. If any evidence of importance could have been obtained in America, the witnesses might have been brought forward; but nothing of the sort was done, and a child could see through the proceeding that was attempted to be carried out.—The jury retired at twelve o'clock. They returned into court in about ten minutes, and found the prisoner "Guilty."

At the close of Jean Luie's trial, Captain Brown, another of the witnesses on Orton's trial, was put into the box to take his trial. The allegations of perjury against him were that he had sworn that he saw Castro or Orton at Rio de Janeiro in 1854; that Castro had no tattoo marks, that he also saw the man, Luie, at Rio at the same time, and that he was present when Roger Tichborne went on board the "Bella," with Capt. Oates and Capt. Hoskins, and another captain named Burkett. Capt. T. Oates and Capt. Hoskins were examined in support of the charge, after which the prisoner was called upon for his defence. He simply asserted his innocence, stating that he had no intention to commit wilful perjury. The jury, without returning from the box, found the prisoner guilty. The other prisoner, Jean Luie, was then brought up, and both prisoners were placed at the bar to receive judgment. Mr. Justice Brett said that both prisoners had been convicted upon evidence as clear as that which led to the conviction of Arthur Orton, of the offence of wilful and corrupt perjury, and it was an offence of the most serious character. Nothing was more essential to the administration of justice than that truthful evidence should be given in a court of justice, and those who were guilty of giving perjured testimony committed a very great crime, and when they were convicted of it, it was the duty of the court to pass a very severe sentence. They had deliberately sworn to things they must have known to be false; and there was no doubt that they hoped by the false testimony they gave, to place the man Orton in his original position, and enable him to endeavour to plunder the family he had attacked. It was in the favour of Luie, that although he was evidently a brave man, he had at last been compelled to shed the tears of despair, and that he had refrained from putting the wretched man, Arthur Orton, into the witness-box. He then sentenced Luie to one day's imprisonment and seven years' penal servitude, and Brown to five years' penal servitude.

III.

THE FREDERICK LEGITIMACY TRIAL.

THE case of "Frederick v. Her Majesty's Attorney-General, and Frederick," was tried before the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes in the month of December. The case was a petition under the Legitimacy Declaration Act, in which the petitioner, Capt. Charles Edward Frederick, prayed the Court to declare that his paternal grandfather, Col. Charles Frederick, was lawfully married to Martha Rugden, on or about March 20, 1773. Mr. Hawkins, Q. C., and Dr. Tristram appeared for the petitioner; Mr. Morgan, Howard, Q. C., Mr. A. E. Hardy, and Mr. Gumbleton for the Attorney-General; and Mr. Serjeant Parry, Mr. Inderwick, Q. C., Mr. Searle, and Mr. Lindsay for the respondent, Vice-Admiral Charles Frederick.

It was admitted that beyond the declarations of the parties themselves, no direct proof of the alleged marriage can now be given. The proof of it rests on a series of circumstances; and the nature and character of this proof will be best shown by tracing in outline the history of Col. Frederick and his reputed wife from 1776, when Col. Frederick left England for India, until 1794, when Mrs. Frederick, who survived him, died.

Col. Frederick sailed for Bombay in 1766, leaving his wife, with her two infant daughters, in charge of her brother, Mr. John Rugden, and in the following year, Mrs. Frederick followed her husband to India, and lived with him there till his death, 1791. In 1779 a junior officer was promoted over Col. Frederick's head by the Government of Bombay. He, in consequence, resigned his commission in the East India Company's service, and came to England to lay his grievance before the Court of Directors. He then made the acquaintance of his brother Lenox's wife, who was generally called "Nancy." The warmest friendship sprang up between them, and when, shortly afterwards, Col. Frederick went to the Continent, pending an arrangement with his creditors, a correspondence commenced between him and his sister-in-law, which forms nearly the first link in the chain of proof upon which the petitioner relies in support of the asserted marriage. In a letter to Nancy, under date "Ostend, Jan. 31, 1781," Col. Frederick wrote:—"I do not conceive the accounts of the late shocking hurricane ought, by any means, to add to your uneasiness . . . The word 'wife' brings with fresh pleasure to my mind the late and only satisfaction I am capable of enjoying amidst my present misfortunes. I mean some letters I have just received from my wife." The letter continues full of expressions of affection for his wife and children. Under date "Ostend, February 28, 1781," he wrote:—"You can have no idea of the complicated horrors of my situation, nor do I wish you should. It would only add to that weight upon your mind which is already too great, for I am sure you would pity me. What I suffer personally, though much, I have philosophy to bear with patience, but I feel severely for a wife, the most amiable of her sex, and for four lovely children." And under date April 11, 1781:—"You have perfectly won my heart by your kind manner of mentioning my wife; indeed, her behaviour and attachment to me have been such, and shown in so indisputable a manner, and through such trying situations, as my whole life, nay, twenty lives, would

hardly be sufficient to repay. The greatest and most unpardonable folly I ever committed in my life was not making her known to my family before I went to India. Would to God I had! The goodness of her disposition and her many amiable qualities would soon have reconciled everybody to her, I am sure, and secured their approbation of my choice. When my father was at the Hague I had determined on it with myself, and began a conversation with him about the maintenance of my children with that intent; but he took so much pains to change the subject that I did not know how to bring it about. I have never forgiven myself since for not having done it. I suppose you have heard I did inform him of my marriage when I was last in England, but there being no register, and the certificate being left in India to entitle her to the Company's allowance in case any accident happened to me, I could not immediately prove it legally, upon which grounds he refused to acknowledge her. I fear he was biassed by a person whom I thought my sincere friend, but who, since my present unhappy situation, has proved otherwise. You will readily guess who I mean. The subject is too melancholy to dwell any longer upon."

On Jan. 10, 1782, he wrote to his sister-in-law about the education of his two daughters, who had theretofore been under the charge of their uncle, Mr. John Rugden. It was considered that their uncle's position in life unfitted him for the superintendence of their training, and they were accordingly removed from his roof and placed under the charge of Mrs. Lenox Frederick. In 1782 Col Frederick had his commission restored to him by the Court of Directors of the East India Company, and in the autumn of that year he took his departure for Bombay, which he reached in 1783. On his arrival he resumed the correspondence with his sister-in-law, and mentioned in a letter, dated Nov. 2, 1783, that while absent in England his letters to his wife had miscarried, and that, having heard reports injurious to his character, she had written to his father on the subject. With this letter he enclosed one from his wife to Mrs. Lenox Frederick respecting the education of his daughters, beginning "My dearest sister," and ending with "your obliged and very affectionate sister, M. Frederick. P.S. My husband writes to you by this opportunity."

Correspondence of a like character passed between Col. Frederick and his wife, and his brothers Lenox and Edward, down to his death at Dharwar in 1781. He left his wife and children wholly unprovided for, but Mrs. Frederick applied to the Government of Bombay, and claimed the usual allowance made to a colonel's widow out of Lord Clive's Fund. She further obtained, on March 2, 1792, an additional allowance from the Contingent Fund, on account of her eight children, and, having also received the proceeds of a subscription raised in Bombay for her assistance, she left India with her family in 1793 and returned to England. The allowances made by the Bombay Government were subject to the approval of the Court of Directors. Accordingly Mrs. Frederick sent in a memorial to the Board in December 1793. The sub-committee to which the matter was referred reported "that she was deserving of the pension of a colonel's widow, and submitted that she should be admitted thereto, she having produced the necessary certificates to entitle her to receive that pension. They also submitted that, having eight children wholly unprovided for, she should have a further allowance of 100*l* a year from the Contingent Military Fund, the pension and allowance to begin from February 28, 1793, the date up to which she received the last half-year's pension at Bombay." On the 29th of the same month the Court of Directors confirmed the report of their sub-committee, and Mrs. Frederick continued in receipt of the pension

down to her death, which occurred at Bath on August 23, 1794. The inscription on the tombstone which marks her grave is in part obliterated, but this passage is still legible—"In Memory of Martha —, relict of Charles Frederick, colonel of His Majesty's Bombay Army, who departed this life August, 1794—."

Her children having been left in very poor circumstances, their uncle, John Rigden, memorialised the East India Board in their behalf, and an allowance of 20*l.* a year was granted out of the Contingent Fund to each of the five younger children of the deceased. Several letters also passed between John Rigden and Lenox and Edward Frederick, the brothers of the colonel, as to the best mode of providing for the family. One of them, bearing date 1799, ran thus.—"I have been reading the new imposition tax on income. If I understand it right (I hope in God I do not), I am sure no person can have a living but placemen and pensioners, and I plainly see Mr. Pitt is determined to run all those that do not think and act as he wishes. I must break and my family go into the workhouse in less than three years. You are in a situation to survive a little longer." The letter contained a reference to certain accounts relating to the estate of his sister, and on the back of it there was this endorsement in his handwriting:—"I have with much difficulty found the marriage certificate, which I also—" (It was suggested that the certificate referred to was the certificate of the marriage of Col. Charles Frederick and Martha Rigden, and that the missing words in the endorsement—the paper is torn—were probably "return you") Somewhere about 1800 a controversy arose between John Rigden and his nephew Charles Frederick, who claimed in right of his mother certain property of which his uncle was in possession. John Rigden disputed the claim, and this was the first time a doubt of the marriage of his sister with Col. Frederick was raised. The question, however, was left undetermined.

Capt. Frederick, the petitioner, was first called. He stated that Sir Richard Frederick, the late baronet, had left the family property to him, and had also given him several heir-looms, and he produced the several letters to which reference has been made and also two family Bibles. One of the Bibles belonged to his grandfather, and in it were entries by Col. Frederick of the births of his children, and also one of his marriage with Martha Rigden, the date being given as March 20, 1773. The second Bible belonged to his father, General Edward Frederick, who copied into it some of the entries found in the other book. The petitioner added that his father was the third son of Col. Frederick; that Charles, the eldest son, was killed in the Walcheren Expedition, leaving no lawful issue; and that Arnold, the second son, who was unmarried, was blown up in the "Queen Charlotte" at Leghorn. On cross-examination he admitted that search had been made in vain for any official record of his grandfather's marriage, or for any licence authorising it. Mr. Mason, of the India Office, produced the records of the East India Company, in which Col. Frederick's commissions and pensions and allowances to his widow and children were entered. The witness stated that neither in the deed constituting the Clive Fund, nor in the regulations of the East India Company, who administered it, is it expressly stated that a certificate must be produced, but there can be no doubt whatever, from the many cases of admission to pensions between 1770 and 1800 showing the production of the certificate, that the practice was to require its production in every instance. He had, however, he said, looked into hundreds of the cases to be found in the books of the Com-

pany, and in nearly every case the marriage certificate was produced by the applicant. He added that in one instance the Company deferred, for four years, granting the pension, until the marriage certificate was produced. He, in consequence, inferred that the practice was to require its production. Lord Lisgar, whose father, Sir William Young, married Lucy, a daughter of Col. Frederick and his reputed wife, was also called as a witness, and stated that his mother was always treated as a member of the Frederick family. The two family Bibles were put in evidence, but the Court, on the objection of counsel for the respondent, refused to receive the volume of the "Annual Register," containing the record or announcement of the birth of the first child by the alleged marriage, which ran:—"Aug. 15, 1774.—The Lady of the Hon. Capt. Frederick, son of Sir Charles Frederick, of a daughter." This closed the evidence adduced on behalf of the petitioner, and it was submitted by his counsel that it clearly established the marriage by repute.

Mr. Serjeant Parry then proceeded to open the respondent's case. In doing so, he begged the jury to dismiss all prejudice and feelings of sympathy from their minds and to look at the question which they had to decide as one of pure fact. There was no doubt that a marriage could be proved by reputation, but that reputation, he submitted, should not be confined to one place or one class of persons. It should be, as it were, invulnerable, with no counter reputation running against it, but it would be shown that no such reputation had existed in respect of the marriage which was now disputed. It was impossible not to be moved by the correspondence which had passed between the parties and been produced in the course of the trial. He quite admitted, too, that Col. Frederick was devotedly attached to his reputed wife; but he should, nevertheless, contend that the conclusion to be drawn from the evidence adduced by the petitioner himself was this—that Charles Frederick had seduced Martha Rigden and induced her to live with him, and that in India he feared to go through a ceremony of marriage with her, she being then received as his reputed wife, lest, by so doing, he should proclaim her shame and the illegitimacy of their infant daughters in England. The learned Serjeant then briefly referred to the character of the evidence which he should submit to the jury, and mentioned, among other things, that in certain deeds to which members of her own family were parties, Martha Rigden was described as a spinster at the time of her death.

Evidence was next given in support of the respondent's answer. An officer from the Probate Court produced the will of William Rigden, the uncle of Martha, the petitioner's grandmother, and in which he leaves her various bequests. These bequests he leaves "to the use of my niece, Martha Rigden, spinster, for her life; and after her death to her children, lawfully begotten, and in default of such issue, to John Rigden, her brother, his heirs or assigns, and after his death to his children, lawfully begotten." This will is dated January 5, 1776, and there is a codicil to it, dated November 22 in the same year, in which the testator revoked all the legacies of personalty to Martha, and ordered that she receive in place thereof 1,000*l.* on her personal demand six months after his death. Letters of administration were also put in evidence granted to this testator to the estates of his brother Benjamin, and by which he was appointed guardian of his brother's children, Martha and John Rigden; such being the manner and terms in which the petitioner's grandmother was treated and recognised by her several relations three years after her alleged marriage with the petitioner's grandfather. The will of Sir Charles

Frederick, the petitioner's great grandfather, was next put in evidence, in order to show that while his son, the petitioner's grandfather, was referred to in various parts of it, no mention was made of his children, and no reference whatever was made to them. That will was dated November 20, 1784. Mr. Serjeant Parry then tendered a deed of release, dated October 26, 1803, between Sir John Frederick, Bart., Edward Boscawen Frederick, and Mr. Edmund Hill. Mr. Hawkins objected to the evidence, as the persons named in the deed were in actual contention at the time it was executed, on the same point as that involved in the present suit. Sir James Hannen, after listening to a long legal argument on the point, rejected the evidence and other evidence of a similar character. Several other deeds of a date subsequent to 1800 were tendered to prove declarations of members of both families, but they also were held inadmissible for the purpose.

Mr. Frederick Joseph Prescott was then called as a witness. He stated that he was the grandson of Sir Charles Frederick, and that he came to London in 1814, when he was appointed a clerk in the War Office by Lord Palmerston. He resided with his great-aunt, Mrs. Molyneux, and the subject of Col. Frederick's marriage was a frequent topic of conversation between her and Nancy, the widow of Thomas Lenox Frederick. The witness was asked to give the purport of these conversations, but counsel for the petitioner objected; and the Court ruled that the evidence was inadmissible, on the principle on which the deeds were rejected. Mr. George Stephens Frederick was called to give similar testimony, but his evidence also was rejected as inadmissible. The depositions of Miss Margaret Rigden, aged eighty-five, and Miss Martha Rigden, aged eighty-three, whose evidence was taken by Mr. R. A. Pritchard, the Commissioner appointed for the purpose, at their residence, near Chepstow, were then read. These witnesses stated that they were the daughters of John Rigden, that they had heard that their aunt Martha had eloped from the house of a Mrs. Shepherd with Col. Frederick, and that their father had followed her to London to bring her back. They further stated that in a box of papers which belonged to their father, and which their brother William, since deceased, gave them in 1870, they saw a letter from Col. Frederick in answer to one from their father, who, it is suggested, must have written to the colonel when in India, asking him to marry his sister Martha. In the letter in question Col. Frederick stated that Martha was considered one of the nicest women in Bombay, and was received as his reputed wife, and that he could not marry her, as by so doing he would cast a slur upon her character. They further deposed that there was also among the papers what purported to be a certificate of a marriage at Stalisfield, which they supposed was Stalisfield near Faversham, between Col. Frederick and their aunt Martha, but they could not remember the name of the clergyman by whom it was signed nor say in whose handwriting it was. They added, however, that in the Rigden family the children of the colonel and their aunt were considered illegitimate, and stated that they had burnt the papers by direction of their brother. Mr. Stephen Tucker, "*Rouge Croix*," produced from the Heralds' Office the pedigree of the Frederick family, enrolled there by Sir John Frederick. In the first instance the pedigree terminated with 1772, but it was subsequently brought down to 1790. It did not appear by whom the addition was made, but, while it recorded the birth of Charles (the colonel), it made no mention of his marriage. Evidence was also adduced to show that no record of the marriage could be found in any of the churches at Canterbury or Faversham, nor any licence

authorising it, and it appeared upon an examination of the register of Stalisfield, produced by the Rev. J. N. Vheland, the present vicar of the parish, that only one marriage was solemnised in the church in 1773—that of Matthew Fught with Mary Kirby.

Mr. George Gipps, of Howlets, near Canterbury, whose grandfather was executor of William Rigden, uncle of Martha, produced a number of documents and papers which belonged to the testator. Mr. Gipps stated that the documents in question had been found on Friday last with a mass of other papers in a loft or lumber-room in his house, which he had inherited from his father, and that he produced them for the use of both parties to the suit. The papers included a bundle of receipts, beginning with November 1773, and ending with May 1776, given by Mrs. Fiederick to her uncle, William Rigden, for sums of money paid by him to her, and all are signed “Martha Rigden.” In a “business-book” and two day-books of William Rigden’s, entries of those payments to his niece are to be found, and Mr. Birch, of the manuscript department of the British Museum, stated that in his belief the signatures to the receipts were in the handwriting of Martha Rigden, and the body of the receipts and the entries in the books, in the handwriting of William Rigden. Three receipts, dated 1776, and signed “Martha Fredericks,” were also produced, and the signatures proved to be in the handwriting of Martha Rigden. The books contained entries of the most miscellaneous kind, one being a payment of “2s. for 8 lbs. of steak;” and much time was occupied in their examination and the comparison of the writing in the different papers with the admitted writing of the parties. The following letter from William Rigden to his niece Martha, was also among the papers found and produced by Mr. Gipps:—

“Canterbury, July 1, 1776.

“DEAR PATTY,—Your husband, as you stile him (though members of your family, as well as myself, think you are not married), have both of you laid your heads together to winedraw me by flattering me with having a soft, tender heart. If as soft as oyle, you have done enough to make it as hard as marrable. Consider your conduct for the three last years past. You know the solemn promisses you are under with Cosquin (presumably cousin). You left all your friends, and became a companion to one of the greatest rakes in the kingdom—one who has almost ruined his father, and contracted such debts as he is first to fly his country and must never see England any more. By him you have had two children, which I am afraid are illegitimate. All this has been done in secret to me till a month ago. You are now by your brother’s talk assisting to do as your reputed husband has done—that is, to rob your family of what money you can. But, Patty, you may depend upon it that I will not raise any money for you to undertake such an enterprise. You may take this as an absolute denial that I will not raise any money. You may sell your annuity, and do what you please with the money. You need not trouble yourself to come down, for if the greatest man in the kingdom solicit for you I will do nothing. As you are determined to go, and as your conduct has turned for these three last years, the pleasure of seeing you will be nothing.—From your affectionate uncle,

W. R.

P.S.—Don’t flatter me with ‘Esq.’ in your direction. Empty honour I abominate. A spade, a bough, and a pair of slings, makes me a coat of arms.”

A small slip of paper found with the letter contained this memorandum, also in the handwriting of William Rigden:—“Rev. Mr. Duckworth, son of Pre-

bendary Duckworth, of Windsor, gone to East Indies; married at Starchfield (common pronunciation of Stalisfield) March, 1773. The man that gave her away dead. Very bad account."

The Rev. Vernon Blake, vicar of Stoke Pogis, Buckinghamshire, was called, and produced the parish register from 1770 to 1778. He stated that the Rev. Mr. Duckworth was vicar of the parish from 1755 to 1790, and that the register contained continuous entries by him within those dates, but that no trace of a marriage between Charles Frederick and Martha Rigden could be found in it at any period between 1770 and 1780. The register also contained records of the baptisms and marriages at Dutton Church, within the parish of Stoke Pogis, and it appeared on examination that, in addition to other irregularities, many of the entries, though of different dates, were made at the same time. The note of Sir Richard Frederick, the late baronet, in which he described the petitioner simply as "Charles Edward Frederick, eldest son of the late General Edward Frederick," was likewise put in and read. This closed the evidence.

In summing up, the Judge Ordinary commenced by remarking that the jury had long since learnt that the sole question which they had to determine was whether or not a marriage was solemnised between Charles Frederick and Martha Rigden at some time before the year 1784, the date of the birth of their son Edward, from whom the petitioner was descended, for though it had been necessary to allege in the case the validity of all the other marriages that were involved, yet no doubt had been cast upon any other link in the chain than that relating to the marriage of the two persons whose names he had mentioned. There existed no register of that marriage. If there were a register of it, there would be an end of the case in favour of the petitioner, but, in the absence of a register, it was open to him to establish, if he could, by other means, that there was such a ceremony as he alleged, and that evidence might consist of the declarations of the parties themselves, of their conduct, by which they might have asserted that they regarded one another as man and wife, and of the conduct of other persons treating them as man and wife. As it presented itself to him, the case was one in which there were facts of great weight on one side and on the other, and it was the duty of the jury to place those facts in their respective scales, and after mature deliberation, say on which side the balance lay. In considering that question it should be taken as a maxim of law, that where parties had lived together as man and wife, as these two persons had undoubtedly lived, there was a presumption of matrimony. That, however, only meant that all reasonable things might be presumed in favour of the marriage, and it was for them to say whether, making such presumptions, the link which might be found wanting in the chain of evidence was not the result of accident, and that, if all the facts could now be known, that link would be supplied. He should further say that it lay upon the petitioner to establish his case to their reasonable satisfaction. That did not mean that it should be proved to a demonstration that there was a marriage, but that he should lead their minds to the conclusion, beyond any reasonable doubt, that the marriage which he alleged between his grandfather and his grandmother had really been solemnised. Briefly tracing the history of the Frederick and Rigden families, and their respective positions at the period of the alleged marriage, and dwelling on the improbability that Sir Charles Frederick, who was specially proud of his birth and the connections which he had formed, would approve the marriage of his son with the daughter of a family like the Rigdens, who, though respectable, were still engaged in trade, and so far plebeian in his eyes; or, on

the other hand, that William Rigden would particularly desire the union of his niece with a man so notoriously embarrassed as Col. Frederick, his lordship pointed out that there was every reason on both sides why the marriage should in the first instance have been kept secret, and then proceeded to analyse the evidence adduced in the case. Differing from counsel for the respondent, he looked upon the letter of William Rigden to his niece, not as a positive assertion of a belief that there had been no marriage, but of a doubt or fear that no such event had occurred. It was clear, however, that his niece Martha then assured him of her marriage, and not only asserted it, but supplied him with the means to some extent of testing the truth of her statement; that was shown by the memorandum which was found among his papers, for the information as to the facts which it purported to record could only have reached him from his niece. But, however that might be, it was clear that in 1776 both parties, whether truly or falsely, asserted the fact of their marriage, and took up their position of man and wife. It was therefore to be expected that their subsequent language and conduct would be consistent with that position, and no argument could consequently be drawn from the circumstance of their having addressed one another as they did. But whether legally married or not, they were heart and soul man and wife, and in almost every country but this their status would have been that which matrimony gives. This also was to be observed—that the statement as to the marriage made by Martha Rigden to her uncle tallied in every respect with the statement which, years afterwards, Col. Frederick mentioned in the correspondence with his sister-in-law as having been made by him to his father at the Hague, and both combined went to show that the certificate, which, it was admitted, was in existence as late as 1870, was not an afterthought, and that it had been left with his wife in India for the purpose alleged by him. Reviewing the correspondence produced in the case, the Judge-Ordinary specially directed the attention of the jury to the circumstance of Mrs. Frederick having twice written in reference to her husband to Sir Charles Frederick, his father, and suggested that it was in the highest degree improbable that she would have presumed to write to him in the tone in which it was stated she had done, had she felt that her position was that of a mistress, and not that of a wife. Coming down to the period of Mrs. Frederick's return to England in 1793, he directed attention to the fact that she at once assumed her position in the Frederick family as the lawful widow of Col. Frederick, and that there was not only a complete recognition of her in that character in the correspondence which then passed between Lenox and Edward Frederick, but that her application to the East India Company was made with the full knowledge and concurrence of the members of both families. Their conduct after her death was of a like character; and as for John Rigden, by his appeal to the East India Company he asserted as plainly as a man could, that they were the legitimate children of his sister. The failure of Charles Frederick to prosecute the claim which he made in 1800 was a fair topic for comment as against the petitioner; but no stress could be laid on the letter in which, as alleged by the aged daughters of John Rigden, Col. Frederick had refused to marry his sister. There could be no question that the testimony of those ladies was conceived in the spirit of truth; but looking to their advanced age, and the contradictions involved in their evidence, not much reliance could be placed on their recollection of the contents of the document. If the version of it given by the eldest sister was correct—namely, that it was a positive refusal by Colonel Frederick to marry her aunt—it should be found that he had not only been guilty of

forging the certificate of his intended marriage, but of the folly of openly declaring his guilt; and that John Rigden, with this declaration of the true position of his sister in his possession, had made a false claim on behalf of her children to the East India Company. On the other hand, if the version of the paper first given, though afterwards departed from, by the second sister—namely, that Col. Frederick declined to go through the second ceremony of marriage with his wife Martha—was to be accepted as the true one, there would then be, so far from an acknowledgement by Col. Frederick that he had not married his reputed wife, an assertion by implication that he had, and John Rigden would also be relieved from the imputation of having lent himself to a fraud. In conclusion, his lordship informed the jury that while in 1773 no marriage could be celebrated without banns or licence, surrogates were intrusted, for general convenience, with the power of issuing licences. It was most unlikely, he said, that the alleged marriage could have been celebrated after the publication of banns; but, on the other hand, Col. Frederick had nothing more to do than to go to a surrogate—and it was to be presumed that there were some in Kent—and, having made a declaration that he and the lady he was about to marry had resided in the parish of Stalisfield for fifteen days, to obtain a licence as a matter of course. He did not say that that was the course which had been pursued, but it was still a matter which was open for their consideration.

After deliberating for about twenty minutes. the jury found as their verdict “that Col. Frederick and Martha Rigden were lawfully married, as alleged, on or about March 20, 1773.” They also found in favour of the petitioner on the other formal issues of the case. The court thereupon pronounced a decree in the terms of the prayer contained in the petition.

Application was then made to have the respondent condemned in costs, but the matter was allowed to stand over, it being doubtful whether, under the Legitimacy Declaration Act, the court has power to make such an order.

IV.

THE EXETER REREDOS CASE.

BOYD AND OTHERS V. PHILLPOTTS.

THIS was an appeal by the Dean and Chapter of the Cathedral, from a decision of the Lord Bishop of Exeter, ordering the removal of a reredos, with the figures thereon, which had been placed in the choir, and directing a stone screen, with the Ten Commandments thereon, which had been removed, to be replaced.

The case was brought before the Court of Arches, and was argued on three days at the latter end of July, by Dr. Deane, Q.C., and Mr. Walter Phillimore, for the appellants, representing the Dean and Chapter; and Mr. W. C. Phillpotts was counsel for the respondent, Chancellor Phillpotts, who is a Prebendary of the Cathedral.

Two questions were raised before the Bishop of Exeter on his visitation, at

which he was assisted by Mr. Justice Keating, as to his jurisdiction to hear the petition of the Chancellor against the reredos, and whether the images carved therein were illegal, so that he could direct its removal. The Bishop was advised by his learned assessor that he had power to hear the complaint, and, further, as the reredos was erected before a faculty or licence had been obtained, he could direct its removal by the Dean and Chapter; and his Lordship also decided that the images carved thereon, consisting of a representation of the Ascension of our Lord, the Transfiguration of our Lord, and the Descent of the Holy Ghost on the day of Pentecost, could not lawfully be placed in the Cathedral. On appeal to the Dean of Arches the Chancellor appeared under protest, and the Court having decided that it had jurisdiction to entertain the appeal, the questions raised by the Dean and Chapter as to the right of the Bishop to order the removal of the reredos, and the legality of the images thereon, were fully discussed.

The Dean of Arches (Sir Robert Phillimore) in giving his judgment, commenced by saying that the case was one of considerable importance. It had been argued with much ability and learning, and he gladly took the opportunity of thanking the learned counsel on both sides for the assistance which their industry and talent had rendered to the Court. After adverting to the principal features of the case, his Lordship said he was of opinion that the Bishop, acting alone, had not the power to order the removal of the reredos any more than he had the power, acting alone, to prevent the Dean and Chapter putting it up. Inasmuch, however, as he thought the parties had a right to the judgment of the Court upon the most important part of the case—namely, upon the legality of the structure itself, he would not shrink from the labour and responsibility of giving his decision on that point also. The learned Judge went fully into the matter. It was, no doubt, legal for the Bishop to hold a triennial or special visitation, and it was at the latter that the Bishop had ordered the removal of the reredos. After mentioning several cases, the learned Dean expressed himself as clearly of opinion that the appeal to this Court was properly brought. The Bishop had held, with the advice of his assessor, that the erection of a reredos without a faculty was illegal, as also were the images thereon. The appellants, as he understood the argument, did not object to the right of the Bishop to visit the Cathedral, but contended that his power was limited; and after the decision in the case of the Dean of York, and the Order in Council as to the diocese of Exeter, it was clear that whatever was to be done in such a matter was to be done not by the Bishop acting alone, but by the proper Court. For instance, as to stealing of the Communion plate, a Bishop would have power on a visitation to inquire into the matter, but the punishment for such an offence would be for a Criminal Court. He had asked, how in this particular case the order of the Bishop was to be enforced on the Dean and Chapter? and he had received no answer. No case had been cited to the Court, of a faculty being obtained by a Dean and Chapter for the erection of a reredos; and before Sir R. Phillimore held his present office he had been chancellor of several dioceses, and could not remember a single instance of a faculty for a reredos in a cathedral. In Exeter Cathedral a reredos was erected in 1823 without a faculty. And if such an authority was necessary, then a citation for the whole diocese of London would be required for the alterations and improvements at St. Paul's Cathedral. According to Lord Coke, the Dean and Chapter formed a council to a Bishop. After a careful consideration of the question, he was of opinion that the absence of an episcopal faculty did not

make the erection of the reredos illegal ; and he was of opinion that the Bishop had no power to order its removal. For the sake of argument he would assume that the Bishop had the power, and would consider whether the images on the reredos made it illegal. Considering the historical representations on the reredos he thought that they were edifying to the beholder, and by no means obnoxious ; but if they were prohibited by law they must be removed. His Lordship proceeded to the consideration of several objections urged by Mr. Phillpotts to the figures on the reredos, and the last one was an appeal to the learned Dean's judicial discretion. There was another objection, that the Ten Commandments which had been removed were to be placed at the east end ; and from what had been said by Mr. Justice Keating he apprehended that the Dean and Chapter would replace them, and intended to carry out the suggestions which had been made. After an exhaustive discussion on the several points, and after citing numerous authorities on images, from an early period, he alluded to the appeal made by Mr. Phillpotts as to his discretion ; and it was urged that to allow the images to remain would be to adopt the usages of Rome said now to prevail, and on that ground the structure was an appeal to return to such uses, and tended to superstition. If there was such a tendency he deeply lamented it, but he doubted whether the tendency, as alleged, was to be counteracted in the manner proposed. He thought there was great danger in unintentionally doing the work of Rome by denying to the Church of England the innocent aid which the arts of painting and sculpture, within due limits, ministered to religion. Referring to the 30th canon it was stated that the sign of the Cross was greatly abused in the Church of Rome, but the abuse of a thing did not take away the use of it. He did not think that the reredos put up by the Dean and Chapter could be said, to borrow the words of the 30th canon, to "endanger the Church of God, nor offend the minds of sober men," any more than the painting on the boss of the Crucifixion, on the roof of the Cathedral, directly over the choir, which was equally obnoxious to almost all the objections made against the reredos, though its removal had not been sought. The prayer of the appellants to the Court was that they might be dismissed from all further observance of justice, and that the respondent might be condemned in costs. It followed from what he had said that he must grant the first part of the prayer, but as to the latter he hesitated. After referring to a statement as to Lynton Church, where a faculty had been refused by the Chancellor, his lordship concluded : "I shall be glad to think that peace is about to be restored to this Cathedral, and that the golden maxim is about to prevail—*in necessariis unitas, in dubiis libertas, in omnibus caritas*. I hope the prayer for costs will be withdrawn."

Dr. Deane was understood not to press for costs.

Sir R. Phillimore said, he must order the sentence of the Court below to be reversed on the question of jurisdiction, as also on the question of the legality of the reredos. The appellants would be dismissed from all further observance of justice, and no order would be made for costs.

Notice of appeal was given shortly afterwards to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, and the case will accordingly be heard in the spring of 1875.

V.

MARTIN V. MACKONOCHE.

THE following is an abstract of the judgment given by the Dean of Arches, (Sir Robert Phillimore) in this case on December 7. The learned judge divided the charges which had been brought against the defendant by permission of the Bishop of London, by Mr. John Martin, into three classes. One, including those which were as yet undecided by a court of law: a second, those in reference to which a decision had already been given by the Court of Arches; and a third consisting of those offences which had been already decided by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. In the first of this class was included the charge against the defendant of using lighted candles ceremoniously, or at all events illegally. It had been contended by the defence that the candles were not symbolical of anything, and were, therefore, no cause of offence. His Honour, however, said that the use of the candles in the manner described must either be ceremonious or unnecessary, and he must, therefore, decree that the articles referring to that act were substantiated. In regard to the elevation of the paten and bread, and of the cup and wine, the learned judge mentioned that it was contended by the prosecution that they had been raised to a much greater degree than was sanctioned by the laws ecclesiastical, but the evidence given with regard to this was conflicting. Mr. Todd, who was called on behalf of the prosecution, said that the elevation of the elements took place to such a degree that he considered it would fall under the decision of the Privy Council which was given in the case of *Hibbert v. Purchas*. Mr. Layman, however, who was called by the defence, and who was in a much better position to form an opinion in regard to the offence than the previous witness, had stated plainly that the act was not performed in such a manner as would be illegal. It must also be remembered that Mr. Proctor, another witness who was called by the prosecution, had not been asked for any evidence by the learned counsel which would substantiate the performance of the act in the manner described in the articles. His Honour, therefore, considered that the offence so charged had not been proved. In reference to the offence contained in the second division, his Honour said the defendant had been charged with bearing lighted candles, a crucifix, and banners containing among other things representations of the Virgin Mary, and also with changing his vestments in the church. These acts had been already forbidden by the Court in the case of *Elphinstone v. Purchas*, and were proved by the evidence. He therefore pronounced the article proved. The charge of singing the "Agnus Dei," or the hymn "O Lamb of God," immediately after the prayer of consecration, had been contended to have been founded on bad ground, as it was only sung as an ordinary hymn, and was composed of the words of the hymn which was sung after the Communion had been received by the people. He, however, had referred to the Prayer-book, and considering that the alleged offence had been proved, and that it had already been condemned in the case of *Elphinstone v. Purchas*, he must decree that the article was proved. The further ceremonies of making the sign of the cross and kissing the Prayer-book, the learned

judge had also decided as illegal in the case of *Elphinstone v. Purchas*, but then it had been contended by the defendant that the form of the cross had been performed by him in a different way to that which was condemned by the learned judge, and was also performed as a matter of private devotion, and not as a public ceremony. His Honour, however, drew a line between the performance of private devotions and public ministrations, stating that while any order respecting the former would be beset with difficulties, yet that the latter could easily admit of a general rule in reference to them. He considered the legal offence in the article so far as it referred to making the sign of the cross proved, and therefore condemnatory. The several offences charged against the law of using wafer bread, of wearing diverse vestments, and of the officiating minister saying the prayer of consecration while standing with his back to the people, had been already decided by him as to their illegality, and he now pronounced them proved and that the articles were substantiated. The learned judge, in treating of the defendant personally, stated that the matters charged related to no moral or doctrinal offence, but rather to an excess of ritual. Mr. Mackonochie appeared not to have been already the subject of a personal admonition from a court, or from his diocesan, but, nevertheless, he must direct that Mr. Mackonochie must obey the law, he must recognise some authority superior to his own, and he could not make the law for himself, or select what portions of the law he would obey or what he would disobey. Upon the whole, the learned judge considered that he must pass a sentence of suspension of office for six weeks, and condemn Mr. Mackonochie in all the costs of the suit, except those incident to the charge of undue elevation, which his Honour considered was not proved. He considered it was also his duty to admonish Mr. Mackonochie to desist from the practices contained in the articles proved, and to warn him that contumacious disobedience to the sentence might entail upon him, according to the ecclesiastical law, one of far greater severity. The sentence would take effect from Sunday next.

Mr. Brooks, the proctor for Mr. Mackonochie, lodged a notice of appeal with the registrar of the Arches Court against the judgment of Sir R. Phillimore. The effect of the notice was to suspend the order of suspension until the case should be determined by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

APPENDIX.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS AND STATE PAPERS.

I.

DESPATCHES FROM THE GOLD COAST DURING THE ASHANTEE WAR.

No. 1.

TO THE SECRETARY OF THE ADMIRALTY.

"Active," at Cape Coast,

Dec 26, 1873

SIR,—I have the honour to request you will inform the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty that I received, on the afternoon of the 22nd inst., a letter from Sir Garnet Wolseley, informing me that a Mr Hughes (a native), in charge of some levies of the Commendah tribe, had had a brush with the Chamah people and some Ashantees about the lower part of the Prah, and that although he had caused them to retreat, he was unable to follow up his advantage, being without the means of transporting his men across the river into the enemy's country; and requesting me, therefore, to detach a man-of-war to convey ten canoes and fifty natives to Mr Hughes's support.

I at once despatched the "Encounter" and "Merlin" on this service. The latter vessel first went to Secondee to pick up any information which might be obtainable, and afterwards joined the "Encounter" off the mouth of the River Prah.

Next morning (23rd), having embarked Sir Garnet Wolseley and his staff, I got under way in the "Active," and visited the place myself. Having taken the steam pinnace across the bar, at its entrance, carrying eight feet all the way, I took the General up the river for a short distance in order to reconnoitre.

We found mangrove swamps and very thick bush on both banks, and there appeared to be plenty of water for some distance.

Seeing no signs of any enemy, we returned on board at 5.30 p m., and steamed back to this anchorage.

I left the "Encounter" behind to render any assistance Mr. Hughes might require, and I enclose a copy of Captain Bradshaw's report of proceedings after I left him, which he forwarded to me on his return here next day.

At 10.30 p m the arrival of the "Merlin" brought me news that those Commendah people, having been put across the Prah as they wished, had suddenly discovered that the enemy numbered 6,000 against their 600, and, consequently, the river being in their rear, they stood a great chance of being altogether annihilated, unless speedily conveyed back into their own country.

I at once ordered the "Encounter" and "Merlin" to return to the assistance of these people, and a copy of the report I received from Captain Bradshaw on his return here this afternoon, is enclosed for their Lordships' information.

I have conveyed to Captain Bradshaw my approval of the manner in which he has carried out this service.

I have, &c.,

W. N. HEWETT.

The Secretary of the Admiralty.

No. 2.

TO COMMODORE HEWETT.

*H.M.S. "Encounter," at Cape Coast Castle,
Dec. 24, 1873.*

SIR,—I have the honour to report that at 8 a.m. to day I entered the River Prah for the purpose of carrying out the instructions you gave me with reference to supporting the Commendah people in their contemplated attack on the Chamah and other hostile tribes settled near to them.

The two cutters of Her Majesty's ship under my command and the cutter of the "Merlin" having been manned and armed, they were taken in tow, by the steam pinnaces of the "Encounter" and "Active" (the latter having been left behind with me for this purpose), and with them I went on board the "Merlin," anchored off the entrance of the river, but, not seeing anything of Sergeant Hughes or his men, I sent a message directing him to come to me at once. I afterwards landed on the east bank of the Prah, and at 8 30 a body of 300 men arrived.

These I immediately sent, with their arms and food, across to the other side, in batches of twenty, employing my cutters, pulled by Kroomen, on this service.

Very few arrived after this first detachment until ten o'clock, when Sergeant Hughes, with another 300, completed our total number of 635 fighting men, all of whom were landed on the west side of the river by 10 30 a.m., and at 11 o'clock they marched on Chamah.

I then sent the cutters and one steam pinnace on board the "Merlin" for their dinners, and in the other pinnace I proceeded to reconnoitre the Prah.

I ascended it a distance of four and a half miles, when, observing nothing of importance excepting a small village in ruins (it having been burnt down on some previous occasion), and the navigation becoming somewhat dangerous, I returned to the entrance and steamed across the bar, on which we touched lightly, owing to it being low water.

By this time the town of Chamah was in a blaze, Sergeant Hughes having fired it. I steamed along the beach to the west of Chamah, and observed Hughes's men engaging the enemy in skirmishing order.

Shortly afterwards I returned on board the "Encounter," when a sharp skirmish was noticed to take place, resulting in the flight of the Chamah people.

The Commendah men then quietly returned to their town; and, having

nothing further to detain me, I weighed anchor at three o'clock this afternoon, and have the honour to report my arrival here at 5.50 p.m.

I directed the "Merlin" to join your Broad Pendant to-morrow morning.

I have, &c.,

RICHARD BRADSHAW, Captain.

Commodore W. N. Hewett, V.C.,
Senior Officer.

No 3.

TO COMMODORE HEWETT.

*H.M.S. "Encounter," Cape Coast Castle,
Dec. 26, 1873.*

SIR,—I have the honour to inform you that I proceeded from the anchorage at 2 15 a.m. on the 25th inst., steaming slowly, and arrived at Chamah at 7 a.m. the same morning. I sent a canoe on shore to desire Sergeant Hughes to come on board immediately.

2 Sergeant Hughes came on board at 10 30 a.m., bringing with him the Principal Chief of the Commendah tribe. He acquainted me that the Wassau tribe having failed to form a junction with him, he was not strong enough to cope single-handed with the Chamahs, besides which he could get no food, and his ammunition was running short.

3 He had burnt and destroyed everything at Chamah, had taken fifty canoes, and he thought it better to recross the Prah and make his way to Tooguah, where he was ordered to be by the 28th inst. I therefore directed him to get his men together as soon as possible, and march them to the spit at the Prah River, carrying their colours in the rear, in order that I might cover them, supposing the enemy should follow them up. I ordered Lieutenant Day to take the "Merlin" to her old position off the Prah.

4. During this time we saw sharp skirmishing going on, the Chamahs attacking from the bush close to the town. They were, however, driven off, Sergeant Hughes' party losing two men killed and three wounded, one of the latter having his right thumb blown off by the bursting of his gun.

5. At 1.45 p.m. they began to march. I then sent one cutter, towed by steam pinnace, which, with the cutter of the "Merlin," went into the Prah to take them across. By 4.30 p.m. they were all again on the eastern shore, when our boats returned to the ship.

6. Mr. Essein, the interpreter, who

had been on shore, told me he heard that the village of Alboaddi was full of Chamahs, who had gone there, taking with them all their goods, on seeing the men-of-war anchor in the bay. I, accordingly, at 4.30 this morning, took my pinnace and cutter, with the "Merlin's" cutter in tow, with the steam pinnace, and proceeded to Alboaddi Point, arriving just after daybreak. Commenced shelling the village with pinnace's gun, the cutters throwing in rockets. The practice was excellent, nearly every shell bursting in the village, one went through the roof of a hut, and, bursting inside, blew the wall completely down. The rockets were thrown in with great precision, and the village was in flames before 7 a.m. As soon as it was well on fire I ceased firing, remaining off the point, throwing an occasional shell in to prevent the enemy coming back to try and extinguish the fire. By 8 a.m. the whole village was in a blaze, and at 8.30 it was a mass of smouldering ruins—not one house remained standing. I then, with the boats, returned to the ship.

7. The officers in charge of the boats were—"Encounter's" pinnace, Lieutenant Evans; "Encounter's" cutter, Lieutenant Loveridge, "Merlin's" cutter, Lieutenant Day.

8. Mr. Essein accompanied the boats, and was of much use in piloting us while it was dark, as the point is very rocky; in fact, his services altogether have been very valuable since he embarked in the "Merlin," and he has always shown a cheerful willingness in procuring or imparting information.

9. Having now substantially harassed our enemy the Chamahs, and as the Commendah people were again in their own country, there was no reason for my remaining longer, especially as my Kroomen, attached to the Naval Brigade, are to land this afternoon. I consequently ordered the "Merlin" to accompany me and proceed to Cape Coast Castle, and I now beg to report my arrival here at 1.20 p.m.

10. I also beg to enclose herewith the necessary returns.

I have, &c.,

R. BRADSHAW, Captain.

Commodore Hewett, V.C.,

H.M.S. "Active."

No. 4.

TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR WAR.

Head Quarters, Amoafu, Feb. 1.

SIR,—According to the intention expressed in my despatch of the 30th ult.,

I yesterday attacked the enemy to the south of this town, and drove them with heavy loss from the position they had selected to fight upon, and where I now find that the King of Ashantee had been for some time collecting his army.

My whole force, divided into four columns, as per margin, advanced along the main road, preceded by the scouts, until the enemy were met at the village of Egginassie, which was carried by a rush of the scouts at about 8 a.m. The front column then extended into the thick bush on each side of the road, which was cut and widened by labourers under the Royal Engineers, so as to admit of the advance of the guns.

As the leading column advanced northward the left column, according to orders previously issued, cut a path diagonally to the left front, with a view of protecting the left flank of the front column; and as it moved along this path, the right column closing up, cut a path diagonally to the right, to protect the right flank, while the rear column extended, so as to gain touch of the right and left columns which were designed to follow the flanks of the front column, and, should it be outflanked, to face east and west outwards. My intention was to fight in the form of a square, and so oppose the invariable flanking tactics of the enemy, which their superior numbers would probably allow them to carry out against any line which I could form.

The front column, under Sir A. Alison, found the enemy in great force beyond a swampy stream to the north of Egginassie (see sketch), and suffered heavily in dislodging them. They were driven out by the steady advance of the Infantry, aided by the fire of Rait's guns. The large numbers of dead Ashantees at this part of the field, and the numbers of the 42nd Highlanders here wounded, showed the stubborn resistance made by the enemy. The 42nd Highlanders finally advanced and captured the town of Amoafu about noon, after being more than four hours in action.

Meanwhile the left column, advancing under a heavy fire, by which Captain Buckle, R.E., was killed while urging on his labourers, occupied the crest of a hill, where the clearing was made, and the enemy driven away from this portion of their camp by an advance of the Naval Brigade and Russell's Regiment. Colonel McLeod having cleared his front and having lost touch of the left of the front column, now cut his way in a north-easterly direction and came into the main road in rear of the Highlanders, about the same hour that the advance occupied

Amoaful. I protected his left rear by a detachment of the Rifle Brigade, our left flank was now apparently clear of the enemy.

On the right Lieutenant-Colonel Wood was met by a fire which prevented the advance of his column for more than a very short distance into the bush; consequently, when the front column took Amoafu, it would have become detached from the right column, but that communication was kept up along the main road by two companies of the 42nd the Headquarters and Detachment 23rd, and a company of the Rifle Brigade. Long after Amoafu was taken the Ashantees kept up a heavy fire on the right of the main road, and these troops lay down and replied to it, repelling the enemy, but not without loss.

Up to 1.30 p.m. the enemy kept up a very heavy fire on Lieutenant-Colonel Wood's column, whose right was extended into the bush, east of the village of Eginassie. But they made no progress, and soon after half-past one an advance of the Kossoos and Bonny men of Wood's Regiment drove them away, clearing the flank of the Naval Brigade, and enabling them to complete the discomfiture of the enemy on this flank. By 1.45 p.m. firing had ceased.

At this time heavy firing was heard in the rear, and I learnt that another body of the enemy had attacked my entrenched post at Quarman. I sent back part of the Rifle Brigade, but the attack was continued till nightfall, though of course repulsed. Shortly before dark a large convoy of baggage, which had been parked at Insarfu during the action, and was now ordered on, was fired upon, though accompanied by a large escort. A number of carriers threw down their loads and ran away, and had it not been for the great exertions of Lieutenant-Colonel Colley, whom I have placed in charge of my line of communications, and who recovered much of the baggage during the night, more serious consequences might have ensued than the loss of a few loads which occurred. On learning of this affair I took immediate steps for clearing my line of communications, and brought in large convoys this morning, in perfect safety, to Amoafu. The officers commanding the columns as above named performed their difficult tasks most excellently, and were efficiently aided by their staff. Lieutenant-Colonel Evelyn Wood, V.C., was wounded while at the head of his troops.

Nothing could have exceeded the ad-

mirable conduct of the 42nd Highlanders, on whom fell the hardest share of the work. As Colonel McLeod was in command of the left column, this regiment was led by Major Macpherson, who was twice wounded. The two wings of the Naval Brigade, under command of Captain Grubbe, R.N. (severely wounded), and Commander Luxmore, R.N.; the Headquarters and Detachment of the 2nd Battalion 23rd Royal Welsh Fusiliers, under Lieutenant-Colonel Mostyn; the 2nd Battalion Rifle Brigade, under Lieutenant-Colonel Warren; Wood's Regiment, under Captain Furse (42nd Highlanders); Russell's Regiment, under Major Russell (13th Hussars), and the scouts under Lieutenant Lord Gifford (24th Regiment), all behaved steadily and coolly under the trying conditions of a fight in dense bush. Sir A. Alison has brought the valuable services of Captain Rait and his Artillery specially to my notice; and Major Home, commanding Royal Engineers, led the advanced working party of the front column, being slightly wounded in so doing.

Commodore Hewett, V.C., R.N., was present with me during the action, and placed his services at my disposal. I received every possible assistance from him, and from the following officers of my staff—Colonel Greaves, Chief of the Staff, Major Baker, 18th Regiment, Assistant-Adjutant-General, Captain H. Brackenbury, R.A., Assistant Military Secretary, Captain Buller, 60th Rifles, D.A.Q.M.G., Lieutenant Rolfe, R.N., Naval A.D.C., Lieutenant the Honourable H. Wood, 10th Hussars, A.D.C.; Lieutenant Maurice, R.A., Private Secretary.

The arrangements for the wounded by Surgeon-Major McKinnon, O.B., Principal Medical Officer, were excellent, and I regret that the enclosed return of casualties shows that his duties were not light.

It is difficult to estimate the numbers of an enemy in thick bush, still more difficult to estimate their loss, but the Ashantees opposed to us must have numbered many thousands, and, as we have buried about 150 corpses beside the main road only, and as the enemy ran great risks to carry off their dead, their loss in killed and wounded must have been very heavy.

I intend to-day to attack Becquah, which the scouts report occupied by the enemy.

I have, &c,
G. J. WOLSELEY, Major-General.

No 5.

TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE
COLONIES.

Head Quarters Camp, Agamama,

Feb. 2.

MY LORD,—Your Lordship is aware that on the 23rd ult I received from the King of Ashantee a letter couched in terms of unconditional surrender. The King had, with great art and care, succeeded in impressing upon the white prisoners, whom he at the same time restored to liberty, a conviction of his entire inability to fight again, and of his entire determination not to do so.

I should trouble your Lordship unnecessarily if I detailed all the minute circumstances which were contrived for the deception of these gentlemen. I was resolved not, under any circumstances, to concede time, which might be used for hostile preparation against us, until I had substantial guarantees of the fidelity of the King in my hands.

But, taking into consideration the restoration of the white prisoners and the evidence supplied by them, I made up my mind that, while it was obviously necessary not in any way to place myself in the King's power, I should not be justified in pressing him too closely, or in assuming an intention of treachery on his part. I felt, therefore, that the news was of so much importance that your Lordship would wish to receive it by the most rapid means possible, and, as you are aware, I arranged with Commodore Hewett for the despatch of the "Sarmatian," in order to communicate this intelligence. At the same time, as it happened that a few days were required for the accumulation of stores, I was able, without risking any delay in the general progress of operations, to make an effort to conciliate the King by promising to move slowly during that time.

I must frankly confess, my Lord, that in so far as I have allowed myself for an instant to suppose that an Ashantee monarch's most solemn promise had the smallest value, I was hopelessly in error. I have had ample reason to congratulate myself that I did not allow my military movements to be affected by anything of the kind.

The whole negotiation was one treacherous plot on the part of the King, intended to give him time to collect his army, and to lure us to the destruction which he still firmly believed he was able to inflict upon us.

He had ingeniously contrived to dismiss the captives before the army had

fairly arrived at its destination, and he hoped to convince me by the distinct evidence which they were able to supply, that no military force whatever lay between me and Coomassie. But while he was assuring the captives that, even if I entered Coomassie and stood in the market-place, he would not resist me, he was preparing a place for his army from which he hoped to surprise me on the march. For this purpose he was gathering his army from all sides upon a position of considerable military strength near Amoaful, a village some eighteen miles from Coomassie.

Fortunately my intelligence department, aided by the information obtained from Mr. Dawson's boy, sent down with envoys, and the significant hint supplied by Mr. Dawson himself, furnished me with information as to the gathering of the army soon after it took place. I therefore, as stated in my letter accompanying the despatch of Jan. 26, moved to attack Amoaful, and after a most severe contest, during which the resistance of the Ashantees, thanks largely to the impenetrable character of the bush, was of a kind altogether more serious than I could have believed possible, I drove them from all their positions, and inflicted on them a complete defeat with very serious loss.

The King's plan, however, must have been long and most carefully prepared, for at the same time that the opposition to our advance became pronounced, a persistent series of guerilla attacks was directed upon a very considerable portion of our line of communications. This is still continued, though the strength of our posts and the arrangements which I have been able to make for the general security of our line have so reduced the effect as to render this merely inconvenient.

On Feb 1 I directed a force under the orders of Sir Archibald Alison, to attack and destroy Baga, a town of considerable size, a mile to the west of Amoaful. This was indispensable to the security of our advance, as we find that unless we either hold or destroy a village which we have once attacked, the Ashantees believe that we have been unable to hold it, and return to threaten our movements.

The complete success of this operation enabled me to-day to follow with all my available force in rear of the retreating army.

A slight and very timid resistance has been opposed to the advancing troops. The enemy, though at some points in considerable numbers, has everywhere fled before us.

I to morrow again advance, and unless the resistance is more considerable than any present indications lead me to expect, I fully hope before nightfall to enter Coomassie.—I have, &c.,

G. J. WOLSELEY,
Major-General and Administrator,
Gold Coast.

No. 6.

TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR WAR.

Coomassie, Feb. 5

SIR,—According to the intention expressed in my despatch which I had the honour of addressing to you on the 1st inst., I on that day attacked Becquah, about a mile to the west of Amoaful. The operation was successfully carried out under the command of Brigadier-General Sir Archibald Alison, Bart., O.B. The forces engaged were as per margin,* and the casualties are shown in the enclosed statement.

On the day following I moved forward to Agemmum, the enemy disputing every mile of ground. There I established a fortified post, where I left all my tents and baggage.

On the 3rd inst. I moved forward again, the enemy in great force opposing our advance and hanging round our flanks. While on the march I received a letter from the King, begging me to halt, and saying he would consent to my terms. I replied that he had so deceived me before that I could not trust him, but to prove how anxious I was for peace, I would halt for the night on the Ordah River, and would not advance beyond it with all my force until the following morning, if he would send to me at once his mother and brother as hostages.

During the night I had a bridge constructed over the river, and gave the enemy nearly two hours of daylight the following morning (4th) before I crossed the river.

The advance guard, under the command of Col. McLeod, 42nd Highlanders, was brought to a standstill shortly after the advance began, and a general action soon developed itself, lasting for more than six hours. The enemy did not, however, fight with the same courage as at

Amoaful, for although their resistance was most determined, their fire was wild, and they did not generally attack us at such close quarters as in the former action.

The village of Ordahsu having been carried by the Rifle Brigade at nine o'clock, I massed all my force there, having previously passed all the reserve ammunition, field hospitals, and supplies, through the troops, who held the road between the river and the village, a distance of about a mile. The enemy then attacked the village with large numbers from all sides, and for some hours we could make no progress, but steadily held our ground. The 42nd Highlanders being then sent to the front, advanced with pipes playing, and carried the enemy's position to the north of the village in most gallant style, Capt Rait's Artillery doing most effective service in covering the attack, which was led by Col. McLeod.

After some further fighting on the front line, a panic seems to have seized the enemy, who fled along the road to Coomassie in complete rout. Although the columns they had detailed to assault our flanks and rear continued for some time afterwards to make partial attacks upon the village, we followed close upon the enemy's heels into Coomassie. The town was still occupied by large numbers of armed men, who did not attempt to resist. The King had fled no one knew whither. Our troops had undergone a most fatiguing day's work, no water fit for drinking having been obtained during the action or the subsequent advance, and the previous night's rest having been broken by a tornado, which drenched our bivouac. It was nearly six o'clock when the troops formed up in the main street of Coomassie, and gave three hearty cheers for the Queen.

Since my arrival here last night I have sent several messengers to the King, and used every possible effort to induce him to come in and make peace. Should he refuse my offers, I shall destroy his palace and his capital, and march without a day's delay to the coast.

I avail myself of this halt in Coomassie, the goal of our military enterprise, to bring before you the names of those officers who have rendered signal service in the operations so far included.

It has seldom been a general's good fortune to be assisted by a staff so thoroughly efficient in all its branches as has been that body of carefully selected officers forming the staff of this expedition.

To my personal staff I am deeply indebted for the manner in which they

* Royal Naval Brigade, head quarters and detachment, 23d Royal Welsh Fusiliers; 42nd Highlanders, Russell's Regiment; Rait's Artillery—one 7-pounder gun and one rocket detachment, Royal Eng. Detachment.

have performed their duties. Captain H Brackenbury, my assistant military secretary, a highly educated officer, has shown much practical ability in the field, and only requires opportunity for the development of great military talents.

Lieutenant Maurice, R A., my private secretary, has carried on my correspondence with the Colonial Office, and I have brought his name to the notice of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Both Capt. Brackenbury and Lieut. Maurice have been with me from the first, and have worked indefatigably.

Of Colonel McNeill, who was my chief of the staff at the beginning of the war, I have already given my opinion in a previous despatch. His severe wound, received in our first fight, deprived me of his valuable services. His soldierlike qualities, his powers of mind and body, render him an invaluable assistant to any general commanding a force. From the date of his being wounded in October until Dec 17, the duties of chief of the staff were ably carried out to my entire satisfaction by Major Baker, the assistant adjutant-general, to whose untiring energy I owe much of the success that has attended all our operations. In my opinion he possesses every quality that is valuable in a staff officer.

Colonel Greaves assumed the duties of chief of the staff on Dec 17. His great knowledge of the army, his experience as a staff officer, the zeal and ability he brings to bear upon his work, mark him out as eminently qualified for the post he occupied. He has rendered me the most valuable service.

The topographical work was well carried out under Captain Huyshe, D.A.Q.M.G., whose death at Prah on Dec 19, deprived Her Majesty of a gallant soldier. The surveys were made by him, assisted by Captain Buller, 60th Rifles, Lieutenant A. F. Hart, 31st Regiment, and other officers. Lieutenant Hart made nearly all the surveys north of the River Prah.

The duties of the Intelligence Department were most efficiently performed by Captain Buller, D.A.Q.M.G. He is an excellent staff officer, and I am much indebted to him for the information of the enemy's doings that he supplied me with through the war. The extensive knowledge he acquired of the native tribes, both in Ashantee and in the territories allied to us, was invaluable to me in my dealings with the kings and chiefs.

The medical arrangements for the war were made by Deputy Surgeon-General Home, V.C., C.B. I have in a previous despatch recorded my high appre-

ciation of the ability and energy with which he carried out his duty up to the date of his being invalided, and of the efficient manner in which he prepared for the medical requirements of the troops in the advance upon Coomassie. The organisation planned by him was well carried out by Surgeon-Major Mackinnon, C.B., who joined me on the march at Acrofoomu, and who has since continued to perform the duties of principal medical officer to my entire satisfaction. Of the medical officers employed I wish specially to bring to your notice the services of Surgeons-Major Woolfreys, Mosse, Waters, Jackson, and Turton, and Staff-Surgeon Irwin, R.N., also of Surgeon G. W. McNulty, who has had charge of the head-quarter staff since we left Cape Coast Castle on our march to Coomassie.

The Control arrangements have been energetically carried out by Deputy-Controller Irvine, C.M.G., with his usual zeal. I cannot award him higher praise than by saying that the men were well fed, and their wants carefully provided for throughout the campaign. The transport, that at one time caused me serious anxiety, was effectually organised by Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel Colley, 2nd Queen's Regiment. He was assisted by twenty-two Special Service officers and six officers of the Control Department. It was a happy circumstance that placed at my disposal the services of an officer of such well-known ability as Lieutenant-Colonel Colley. His great talent for organisation soon placed the transport on a satisfactory footing. To him I confided sole charge of the line of communications. In a war like this it is absolutely necessary that the officer in command of the transport should also have charge of the line of communications. It was, therefore, necessary that these two most important duties should be discharged by a combatant officer.

Among the officers of the Control Department, all of whom have worked with much energy, I would wish especially to mention Commissary O'Connor and Deputy-Commissary Ravenscroft.

Throughout the second phase of the war I have received every possible assistance from Commodore Hewett, V.C., commanding the squadron on the African station, who accompanied me on the march to Coomassie. I have had to make incessant calls upon him for naval services, and in every instance my requests have been complied with. He kindly placed at my disposal a naval brigade, consisting of 17 officers and 265 selected men, whose services have been of the greatest value, and who all have fought

throughout the campaign with the dashing courage for which Her Majesty's seamen and Marines are so celebrated. When my transport difficulties were greatest, Commodore Hewett helped me most materially by supplying Kroomen to act as carriers, and he allowed no regulations to stand in the way of his exertions to secure the ultimate success of this war, in which he and those under his command have played a prominent part.

Captain Rait has been the officer commanding the Royal Artillery throughout both phases of this war. He organised a Houssa battery in a most able manner. The officers, English non-commissioned officers, and gunners attached to it, worked indefatigably. In all the actions and skirmishes the gun and rocket fire has been most effective, notwithstanding the difficulties of the ground on which we fought. I consider Captain Rait to be one of the best soldiers I have ever served with.

In this force, where every white man has had work, and where, especially previous to the arrival of the English troops, all the selected officers that I brought out with me were untiring in their exertions, Major Home, the commanding Royal Engineer, has had his full share of hard work, and most admirably has he performed it. Putting the troops, constructing fortified posts, making a road practicable for all arms up to within a few hundred yards of the position where the enemy fought their first battle in their own territory, bridging the River Prah, an obstacle of considerable magnitude, and subsequently the River Ordah also, besides a large number of smaller streams and rivers—the Royal Engineers, under Major Home, R.E., have worked with the zeal for which their corps has always been conspicuous, and I cannot sufficiently thank him for the manner in which he has carried out the numerous and arduous duties that have devolved upon him.

Brigadier-General Sir Archibald Alison, Bart., C.B., commanding the European Brigade, has rendered me every possible assistance, and has carried out his orders to my entire satisfaction. He has brought to my notice the valuable assistance he has received from his brigademajor, Captain Robinson, Rifle Brigade, and his aides-de-camp, Captain Russell, 12th Lancers, and Lieutenant Fitzgerald, Rifle Brigade.

Colonel McLeod, C.B., 42nd Highlanders, commanded the advanced guard during the march from the Adansi Hills to Coomassie, conducting his operations with cool gallantry in the most skilful

manner. The forcing of all positions occupied by the enemy in our front devolved upon him, and I consider myself fortunate in having had so able an officer to select for that very trying duty.

Colonel McLeod has brought specially to my notice the names of his acting staff officers, Captain Farquharson, V.C., and Lieutenant Wauchope, both of the 42nd Highlanders, the latter of whom was, I regret to say, twice wounded.

The officers commanding English corps were Captain Grubbe, R.N.; Lieutenant-Colonel Mostyn, 2nd battalion 23rd Royal Welsh Fusiliers, Major Macpherson, 42nd Highlanders, and subsequently, when that officer was wounded, Major Scott, of the same regiment, and Lieutenant-Colonel Warren, 2nd battalion Rifle Brigade, to all of whom my thanks are due.

The two native regiments raised on the Coast were commanded throughout the war by Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel H. E. Wood, V.C., 90th Light Infantry, and Brevet Major B. C. Russell, 13th Hussars. Both these officers have upon many occasions been placed in very difficult positions, requiring the exercise of high military qualities, and have invariably carried out their very arduous and trying duties most efficiently. I take the liberty of bringing to your especial notice, as those upon whom the brunt of this war has fallen, these and the other combatant officers named below who originally came out with me, or followed by the first mail steamer.

Personal Staff—Captain H. Brackenbury, R.A., assistant military secretary.

General Staff—Colonel McNeill, V.C., C.M.G., colonel on the staff, severely wounded. Major T. D. Baker, 18th Royal Irish, assistant adjutant-general. Captain R. H. Buller, 60th Rifles, deputy assistant quartermaster-general, wounded. Major R. Home, R.E., commanding Royal Engineers, wounded. Captain A. J. Rait, R.A., commanding Royal Artillery.

Special Service—Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel H. E. Wood, V.C., 90th L.I., wounded. Brevet Major B. C. Russell, 13th Hussars. Captain G. A. Furze, 42nd Highlanders. Captain A. A. Godwin, 103rd Royal Bombay Fusiliers, severely wounded. Captain C. J. Bromhead, 24th Regiment. Captain R. Gordon, 93rd Highlanders (invalided). Lieutenant A. Saunders, R.A. Lieutenant R. O. Richmond, 50th Queen's Own. Lieutenant H. F. S. Bolton, 1st W.I. Regiment. Lieutenant J. F. Maurice, R.A. Lieutenant E. R. P. Woodgate, 4th King's Own. Lieutenant E. F. Lord Gifford, 24th Regiment, wounded.

Lieutenant W. T. Dooner, 8th King's
Lieutenant A. F. Hart, 31st Regiment,
wounded. Lieutenant J. W. Graves, 18th
Royal Irish. Lieutenant M. S. Bell, R.E.
Lieutenant G. F. Mann, R.E. Also
Captain Gordon, 84th Regiment, who
was on this coast before my arrival.

Of the original party of thirty, four
officers named in the margin* have been
killed in action, three have died from
the effects of climate, and seven of the
remainder have been wounded.

I beg to bring to your special notice
the bearer of this despatch, Lieutenant
Hon. H. Wood, 10th Hussars, my aide-de-
camp, who has rendered me valuable
services throughout the campaign.—I
have, &c.,

G. J. WOLSELEY, Major-General.

No 7

Agemmun, Feb 7.

SIR,—On the 5th instant I had the
honour to address you from Coomassie,
and to inform you that if the King re-
fused to come in I should destroy his
capital. I now regret to have to report
that all my efforts to induce him to come
himself, or send a Prince of the Royal
blood to treat with me, failed, and that
the King only continued that policy of
falsehood and deception which have
marked all his dealings with me. Mes-
sengers who arrived throughout Feb 5
were abusing the liberty which I allowed
them by carrying off arms and ammuni-
tion from the town, and on the evening
of that day I decided upon withdrawing
my troops and destroying Coomassie.

My decision to withdraw immediately
was strengthened by the fact that tor-
nadoes appeared to have set in, and that
the passage of the rivers in my rear
might be rendered more difficult by
delay.

I had in the morning sent off all the
wounded who were unable to march
under escort of Wood's and Russell's
regiment and a company of the Rifle
Brigade, and I now issued orders for
an advance, on the morning of the 6th,
of all the remaining troops, beyond Coo-

massie, the dispositions being such that,
on the facing about of the column, all
would be in order for the homeward
march. Prize agents were appointed,
and the most valuable articles left in
the palace packed up, the King having
evidently removed or concealed his trea-
sure. A party of Royal Engineers was
engaged during the night mining the
palace.

Early on the 6th our homeward move-
ments commenced, headed by the Naval
Brigade, and covered by a rear-guard of
the 42nd Highlanders, which did not
retire till the town had been set on fire
in every quarter, and the mines in the
palace fired. A tornado had raged during
the previous day and night, but the de-
struction of the town by fire was com-
plete.

In the despatch which I addressed to
you on Oct. 13 last, asking for English
troops to be sent out to enable me to
accomplish my mission, I stated that
that mission—to ensure a lasting peace
with the Ashantee kingdom—could only
be fulfilled in one way—by defeating the
Ashantee army, by pursuing it, if neces-
sary, to the capital of the Ashantee
kingdom, and by so showing to the King
and all those chiefs who urged him on to
war that the arm of Her Majesty is
powerful to punish her enemies even in
the very heart of their own country.

That mission I conceive I have now
fulfilled by the aid of the troops which
Her Majesty's Government confided to
me for its accomplishment. Yet I can
truly state that no means were left un-
tried by me to bring about a peaceable
solution of the campaign. Up to the
last hour I left the King's palace un-
touched, in hopes that he would return.
The troops refrained with the most ad-
mirable self-control from spoliation or
plunder, and they left the capital of this
kingdom, so famed for its gold, without
carrying away as plunder one article of
value.

All the troops have now reached or
passed this point. The return march
was not made without difficulty. The
streams and rivers had become so swollen
from the effect of the tornadoes of the
last few days, that the shallow swamps
had become waist deep, and the water in
the River Ordah had yesterday submerged
the bridge constructed on the night of
Feb 3, and was still rising when the
troops passed the river. But the convoys
were all taken over in safety, and the
men of the Rifle Brigade and 42nd
Regiment, before whose arrival the bridge
had commenced to give way, undressed,
passed their clothes over the heads of

* Killed in action.—Lieutenant E.
Wilmot, Royal Artillery; Lieutenant
Eyre, 90th Light Infantry; Captain Nicol,
Hants Militia, Captain Buckle, Royal
Engineers. Died of effects of climate—
Lieutenant Honorable A. Charteris, aide-
de-camp; Captain Huyshe, deputy-assistant-
quartermaster-general, Lieutenant
E. H. Townshend, 16th Regiment.

natives, and themselves forded the stream, in one part fully five feet deep

I shall continue my homeward march to-morrow by as rapid stages as the nature of the country will allow, and with every military precaution.

I have, &c.,

G. J. WOLSELEY, Major-General.

No 8.

Agemnum, Feb. 7.

SIR,—In my despatch of this day's date I have given you the latest information as to the movements of the column under my immediate command.

As regards the three other columns last mentioned in my despatch of Jan 30, I have the honour to inform you that I have no news of Captain Glover since that date. All Captain Butler's force of Akims deserted him without warning or reason, and he has returned south of the River Prah, while Captain Moore has arrived in this camp, stating that Captain Dalrymple has utterly failed to induce any men to cross the Ashantee frontier, and is himself on the road to my head-quarters.

I have, &c.,

G. J. WOLSELEY, Major-General.

No. 9

Camp, Amoaful, Feb. 8.

SIR,—I had scarcely sent off my despatches yesterday when Captain Butler, half-pay, 69th Regiment, arrived in my camp, and, as his mission to the Western Akims is now completely closed, I feel it my duty to bring at once to your notice the admirable manner in which he has conducted a most trying and difficult task.

That Captain Butler failed in his effort to lead a force of Akims to Coomassie is not his fault, but is solely due to the ineradicable cowardice and sloth of the people with whom he had to deal. In the face of great difficulties he succeeded in raising a force of Akims and leading them across the Prah. Although they deserted him at the very time when a junction with me was within their reach, these troops did, by their partial advance, effect that diversion which was the object of Captain Butler's labours—drawing off from opposition to the column under my immediate command the whole fighting force of Kokofoo, one of the six great tributary principalities of the Ashantee kingdom.

The high opinion of Captain Butler, which caused me to give him an independent command, is strengthened by his conduct in this war, and I beg to recommend him especially to your notice as an officer of great ability, of remarkably ready resources, and of untiring powers of action.

Captain Dalrymple, 88th Foot, has also worked indefatigably under most disheartening conditions. He, too, has been vanquished by the *vis inertiae* of the people among whom his task lay. But he, like Captain Butler, has rendered me real service, for the Becquah fighting men were drawn off to meet an attack from the Wassaw frontier, which Captain Dalrymple's movements led them to expect. I beg to recommend Captain Dalrymple to your favourable notice.

I have to-day received further despatches from Captain Glover. He writes last from Odumassie, on the 28th ult, being then one march advanced from Obogo, whence he dated on the 17th ult, and about twenty miles, according to his estimate, from Juabin or Coomassie. Copies of his despatches are sent to the Secretary of State for the Colonies. He had with him all his Houssas and Yorubas, and 700 Akims, and was expecting immediate reinforcements of Aquapims and Croboes. I have sent him orders to fall back behind the River Prah, and though I regret that he is not likely, owing to difficulties of communication, to receive these instructions for some time, he should meanwhile, with the force at his command, be quite able to hold his own against very superior numbers of the enemy. I reserve further remarks till Captain Glover's mission is concluded.

I have, &c.,

G. WOLSELEY, Major-General.

No 10

TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE COLONIES.

Camp, Agamum, Feb. 7.

MY LORD,—I have the honour to report that, immediately after the despatch from this station of my last letter on the 3rd instant I forwarded a flying column, taking with me five days' provisions, and marched upon Coomassie. The enemy's resistance on Feb. 3 was considerable, very large numbers being in our front. I halted on the River Ordah.

During the course of the day's march I received from the King a letter, of

which I enclose a copy, with a letter from Mr. Dawson, also enclosed, and returned at once the enclosed reply

On Feb 4 I advanced again at day-break. The enemy had occupied a position of considerable strength near the village of Ordahsu. This they held against us from about seven till a quarter to two, when they yielded, and on my advance guard, under Colonel McLeod, being pushed on against them, broke and fled in all directions, leaving behind strewed along the road the chiefs' umbrellas and chairs, &c, and the food which had been carried with the army.

In the course of this day's march I received from Mr. Dawson two letters, of which I enclose copies. I ordered that the troops should be pushed on at once. No opposition was offered to our entry into the town. We occupied the town. Mr. Dawson was met, at full liberty, walking in the streets.

I immediately issued stringent orders for the protection of the inhabitants and the safety of the town. But night fell almost immediately after our entry, and in the darkness it was impossible to prevent some of the numerous camp followers from pillaging. The Fantee prisoners had also been released, and in all probability were largely engaged in the same pursuit. The result was the outbreak of many fires. Captain Baker, inspector-general of the police, and several officers were engaged nearly all night in the suppression of the pillaging and in putting out the fires. One policeman taken in the act was hung.

I endeavoured, immediately on my arrival, to communicate with the King through Mr. Dawson, and through every channel that appeared to offer an opportunity. A chief having come into Coomassie who was said to be sent by the King, I saw him myself, and impressed upon him my wish to spare the town, and my desire to impose on the King no severer conditions than those he had already accepted.

Moreover, I told this man, that now that I had shown the power of England, I was ready, if the King would make peace at once, to accept a small indemnity, and not to exact the half I had previously required to be paid in ready money.

Other messengers were obtained who undertook to reach the King. To these I entrusted the letter dated Coomassie, Feb. 5, 1874.

All was, however, of no avail. The men whom I endeavoured to employ as messengers, and who came avowedly as envoys of the King, were found treache-

rously removing powder and gold-dust from the houses.

The whole scheme of Ashantee politics is so based upon treachery that the King does not either understand any other form of negotiation, or believe it possible that others can have honest intentions. Under these circumstances, my lord, it became clear that a treaty would be as valueless to us as it was difficult to obtain. Nothing remained but to leave such a mark of our power to punish as should deter from future aggression a nation whom treaties do not bind.

I have done all I could to avoid the necessity, but it was forced upon me. I gave orders for the destruction of the palace and the burning of the city. I had at one time also contemplated the destruction of the Pantoma, where the sacred ashes of former kings are entombed, but this would have involved a delay of some hours. Very heavy rain had fallen. I feared that the streams might have risen in my rear sufficiently to seriously delay my march. I considered it better, therefore, not to risk further the health of the troops, the wet weather having already threatened seriously to affect it.

The demolition of the place was complete. From all that I can gather I believe that the result will be such a diminution in the prestige and military power of the Ashantee Monarch as may result in the break-up of the kingdom altogether. This I had been anxious to avoid, because it seems impossible to foresee what Power can take this nation's place among the feeble races of this coast. I certainly believe that your lordship may be well convinced that no more utterly atrocious Government than that which has thus, perhaps, fallen ever existed on the face of the earth. Their capital was a charnel-house, their religion a combination of cruelty and treachery, their policy the natural outcome of their religion. I cannot think that, whatever may be the final fate of the people of this country, the absolute annihilation of such a rule, should it occur, would be a subject for unmixed regret.

In any case, my lord, I believe that the main object of my expedition has been perfectly secured. The territories of the Gold Coast will not again be troubled by the warlike ambition of this restless Power. I may add that the flag of England from this moment will be received throughout Western Africa with respectful awe, a treatment which has been of late years by no means its invariable fate among the savage tribes of this region.

The troops are now on their march homewards, and will embark for England immediately on reaching Cape Coast

As the mission entrusted to me has now, I may say, been brought to an end, I avail myself of this opportunity for bringing to your lordship's most favourable notice the valuable services rendered to me throughout the war by Lieutenant Maurice, R.A., my private secretary. I would also take the liberty of mentioning the name of Captain Layton, 2nd West India Regiment, who for some time performed the duties of colonial secretary, and whose knowledge of colonial duties and regulations were of great service to me since my arrival in this country

The police duties in connection with the recent military operations have been most effectively performed by Captain Baker, inspector-general of police. He has rendered the force under my command most valuable service, and his zeal and energy mark him out as peculiarly suited for the post he occupies

My aide-de camp, Lieutenant the Hon H. L. Wood, 10th Hussars, who is the bearer of this despatch, I have the honour to recommend to your lordship's favourable notice.

I have, &c.,
G. J. WOLSELEY,
Major-General and Administrator,
Gold Coast

The following is the correspondence which took place between Sir Garnet Wolseley and King Koffee's ministers and Mr. J. Dawson.—

No. 1

Coomassie, Feb. 4, 1874

MY GOOD FRIEND,—I beg to write this to acquaint your Excellency that I am willing to meet your Excellency's demands, but only your Excellency's very rapid movement puts me into confusion. Regarding the hostages and the money, if your Excellency would allow me, I beg that you will let us do it in the same as late Governor Maclean did, because my old mother and brother are my both counsellors and helpers in every way. I acknowledge the wrong done by Ammankwatea, and he will surely be punished by making to pay the sum your Excellency demands. About the prisoners: fearing that some may be excited and hurt himself, I have put them all in iron, and as soon as your Excellency stay to give the time I will send them all.

J. W. Dawson, your messenger, begs to add a few words of his

Your Excellency will to listen your humble servant's entreaty now to stay a few days where your Excellency has reached with the forces, as our lives are now in danger. I was taken from iron to write this letter, and instead of being together we are placed in different places. I beg to say that they feel now the strong battle that they have had, and the King now say he will withdraw his forces if your Excellency would promise to remain where you are to have the matters properly arranged. No doubt we will all be killed if your Excellency do not stay. I send now my cane-bearer instead of my servant. The King is anxious to meet your demands, but he finds the money too heavy. He desires to hunt your Excellency with his best respect.

We beg, &c.,
(For His Majesty Kofi Kalkalee),
YAW BUSUMMURUTINGES,
his x mark,
KUEKA BUSUMUMMARUGWIRA,
his x mark,
King's Private Counsellors.

His Excellency Major-General
Sir G. Wolseley, C.B.,
K.C.M.G., &c.

No. 2

Coomassie, Feb 3, 1874.

SIR,—After the first letter dictated by the King, his chiefs have also begged me to beg of your Excellency to stop your forces where you have reached, and that they will see that every demand is attended to amicably. The prisoners will be sent directly this messenger returns with your Excellency's promise to stay them. I humbly beg your Excellency, on my knees, to let the forces stop, and everything will be settled. I see now they have bend to do what is right, and trust your Excellency will not fight them again, as they intend to withdraw the forces.

I am, in haste, yours, &c.,
JOS. DAWSON.

His Excellency Major-General
Sir G. Wolseley, C.B.,
K.C.M.G., &c.

PS—The chiefs desire me to ask your Excellency to stop the Court, if your Excellency agree to stay and send my cane-bearer to take the prisoners directly. I pray your Excellency to stop the forces from fighting, if his troops do

not bring it to your Excellency The King says now that he will do your wishes

Your obedient servant,
COTI BUAKI,
his x mark,
Linguist.

No. 3.

On the march, Feb. 3, 1874.

KING,—You have deceived me so before that I cannot halt until the hostages are in my possession, as time presses I will consent to accept for to-day your mother and Prince Mensah. Both shall be well treated by me.

You can trust my word If you send them to me, this evening I will halt my army this side of the River Ordah Unless you send them at once, my army will march upon Coomassie

I am, King, your true friend
and well-wisher,

G. J. WOLSELEY,
Major-General and Administrator,
Gold Coast

To His Majesty, Koffee Kalcully,
King of Ashantee Coomassie.

No. 4

Coomassie, Feb 4, 1874.

SIR,—For Heaven's sake I pray your Excellency to halt the forces for to-day and to-morrow. All the Ashantee forces

are coming back home, and I think I will succeed in getting what I have written Captain Butler If your Excellency do not halt, and do not hear from me about twelve to-morrow noon, then all is over with me.

I am, &c,
JOS. DAWSON.

His Excellency Major-General
Sir G. Wolseley, C.B.,
K.C.M.G., &c.

No. 5.

Coomassie, Feb. 4, 1874.

KING,—You have deceived me, but I have kept my promise to you I am in Coomassie, and my only wish is to make a lasting peace with you I have shown you the power of England, and now I will be merciful

As you do not wish to give up your mother and Prince Mensah, send me some other hostages of rank, and I will make peace with you to-morrow on the terms originally agreed upon If either your Majesty, or your Royal mother, or Prince Mensah, will come to see me to-morrow morning early, I will treat you with all the honour due to your Royal dignity, and allow you to return in safety You can trust my word.

I have, &c,

G. J. WOLSELEY,
Major-General and Administrator,
Gold Coast

To His Majesty Koffee Kalcully,
King of Ashantee, Coomassie.

II.

THE TREATY BETWEEN MAJOR-GENERAL SIR GARNET JOSEPH WOLSELEY, KCMG, C.B., ACTING ON BEHALF OF HER MAJESTY VICTORIA, QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, AND SAIBEE ENQUIE, ACTING ON BEHALF OF HIS MAJESTY KOFFEE CALCALLI, KING OF ASHANTEE:—

ARTICLE I.

There shall be hereafter perpetual peace between the Queen of England and her allies on the Coast on the one part, and the King of Ashantee and all his people on the other part

ARTICLE II.

The King of Ashantee promises to pay the sum of 50,000 ounces of approved gold as indemnity for the expenses he has occasioned to her Majesty the

Queen of England by the late war; and undertakes to pay 1,000 ounces of gold forthwith, and the remainder by such instalments as her Majesty's Government may from time to time demand.

ARTICLE III.

The King of Ashantee, on the part of himself and his successors, renounces all right or title to any tribute or homage from the Kings of Denkera, Assin, Akim, Adansi, and the other allies

of Her Majesty formerly subject to the kingdom of Ashantee.

ARTICLE IV.

The King, on the part of his heirs and successors, does hereby further renounce for ever all pretensions of supremacy over Elmina, or over any of the tribes formerly connected with the Dutch Government, and to any tribute or homage from such tribes, as well as to any payment or acknowledgment of any kind by the British Government in respect of Elmina or any other of the British forts and possessions on the Coast.

ARTICLE V.

The King will at once withdraw all his troops from Appoloma and its vicinity, and from the neighbourhood of Dixcove, Secondee, and the adjoining coast line.

ARTICLE VI.

There shall be freedom of trade between Ashantee and Her Majesty's forts on the Coast, all persons being at liberty to carry their merchandise from the Coast to Coomassie, or from that place to any of her Majesty's possessions on the Coast

ARTICLE VII.

The King of Ashantee guarantees that the road from Coomassie to the River Prah shall always be kept open and free from bush to a width of fifteen feet

ARTICLE VIII

As Her Majesty's subjects and the people of Ashantee are henceforth to be friends for ever, the King, in order to prove the sincerity of his friendship for Queen Victoria, promises to use his best endeavours to check the practice of human sacrifice, with a view to hereafter putting an end to it altogether, as the practice is repugnant to the feelings of all Christian nations.

ARTICLE IX

One copy of this Treaty shall be signed by the King of Ashantee and sent to the Administrator of her Majesty's Government at Cape Coast Castle within fourteen days from this date.

ARTICLE X.

This Treaty shall be known as the Treaty of Fommanah.

Dated at Fommanah this 13th day of February, 1874.

III.

PRINCIPAL STIPULATIONS IN THE TREATY BETWEEN HER MAJESTY AND THE EMPEROR OF RUSSIA FOR THE MARRIAGE OF THE DUKE OF EDINBURGH AND THE GRAND DUCHESS MARIE ALEXANDROWNA.

*Signed at St. Petersburg, January 22, 1874, and ratified o
January 29, 1874.*

ARTICLE III.

Her Imperial Highness having become, by her marriage, a Princess of England, shall not be in any way hindered in the full, free, and unrestrained exercise of the religious profession and worship of the Orthodox Church in which she has been brought up. Her Imperial Highness shall be at liberty to have, for that purpose, chapels of the Orthodox rite in the habitations where she shall reside, and in her apartments. Nevertheless, Her Imperial Highness shall, of her own free will, accompany her august consort to the churches and chapels set apart for Divine worship according to the rites and ceremonies of the churches established by

law in England and Scotland respectively as well as to other Protestant churches and chapels at all times when it shall be fitting that she should assist at ceremonies and other public acts which may take place therein

ARTICLE IV.

If, by the blessing of Heaven, there be a child or children born of this marriage, the parents belonging to different communions, her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and His Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, agree that such child or children shall be brought up as a Protestant or Protestants, and

shall be educated, maintained, and provided for, as is usual with respect to the Princes and Princesses of the same rank belonging to the Royal Family of the United Kingdom, so as to exempt her Imperial Highness from all the charges of such maintenance and education, except so far as her Imperial Highness and his Royal Highness, during their joint lives, or her Imperial Highness alone, should she survive her august consort, may by a free and voluntary arrangement agree that a contribution be made to such charges from the revenue of her Imperial Highness.

ARTICLE V.

His Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias assigns to her Imperial Highness a marriage portion of a million of roubles, as fixed for Emperors' daughters by the fundamental laws of the Empire. This capital of a million of roubles shall be considered (subject to the stipulations of different articles of this contract) as the property of her Imperial Highness. It shall be deposited with the Department of Appanages, remain for ever in Russia, and shall bear interest at the rate of five per cent per annum. The interest during the joint lives of his Royal Highness and her Imperial Highness shall be paid half-yearly to her Imperial Highness, who shall have the separate and exclusive enjoyment of it according to the established usage of the Imperial family, and she shall be at liberty to dispose of it by will in favour of her heirs agreeably to her free will and as she may think proper, subject to the various arrangements and stipulations relating to the said capital contained in the following Articles of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE VI

As a mark of his particular affection, and which is not to be considered as a precedent for the future, his Majesty the Emperor grants to her Imperial Highness during her life an annual revenue of seventy-five thousand roubles, to be charged on the appanages. This revenue is destined for the separate and exclusive use and enjoyment of her Imperial Highness, who shall be at liberty to dispose of the same according to her own free will and pleasure.

ARTICLE VII

As a result of the same sentiments, his Majesty the Emperor assigns to her Imperial Highness a special marriage portion of one million of roubles. This capital shall be deposited in the Treasury of the Ministry of the Emperor's house-

hold. In the same manner as the capital mentioned in Article V it shall remain for ever in Russia, and shall bear interest at the rate of five per cent per annum. The interest shall be paid half-yearly to her Imperial Highness during her life, for her separate and exclusive use and enjoyment. She shall have full power to dispose of it by will in favour of those persons who are entitled by law to succeed to her moveable estate after her death. In default of and subject to any such disposition, it shall be dealt with as hereinafter provided.

ARTICLE VIII.

Her Imperial Highness retains, moreover, possession of her private capital. This capital, which, on the 22nd (10th) day of January of the present year (1874), amounted, with the accumulated interest, to six hundred thousand roubles, shall be placed at the entire disposal of her Imperial Highness. If, either during her lifetime, or after her death, her Imperial Highness shall not have disposed of either the whole or of part of this capital, it shall pass to her children, if she has any, in accordance with the stipulations of Article XVI. In default of children born of this marriage, who may be living, or of their descendants, this capital shall be disposed of in favour of those persons who are entitled by law to succeed to the moveable estate of her Imperial Highness.

ARTICLE IX.

Nothing in Articles V, VI, VII, and VIII shall exclude or be deemed contrary to any arrangement which their Royal and Imperial Highnesses may mutually agree to for any contribution towards the expenses of their joint establishment, the idea of her Imperial Highness sharing these expenses out of her own income being in accordance with the spirit and meaning of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE XI.

There shall be only one household for their Royal and Imperial Highnesses. The establishment of this household shall be formed according to the usage and etiquette of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Her Imperial Highness shall be at liberty to appoint, with the approval of her Majesty, the persons who shall compose her personal establishment, inclusive of her chaplains and any subordinate officers necessary for the exercise of her religion; and to dismiss and recall at her will the persons so attached to her service.* The salaries of

all such persons shall be paid out of her Imperial Highness's separate property and income. It is agreed that the debts and obligations which may be incurred by his Royal Highness and her Imperial Highness respectively shall not be common to both, but that each of the two consorts shall be answerable separately for the debts and obligations which he or she may have separately incurred, without liberty to resort to the other of them,

or to his or her property or revenue, for contribution thereto: And that his Royal Highness, and his representatives after his decease, shall be indemnified out of the separate property and income of her Imperial Highness, against any debts or obligations which may be separately incurred by her Imperial Highness, and for which his Royal Highness may by the law of England be held responsible or hable.

IV.

THE' BENGAL FAMINE.

LETTER FROM THE DUKE OF ARGYLL,
SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE COLONIES,
TO HIS EXCELLENCY THE RIGHT HON
THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA IN
COUNCIL

India Office, London, Jan 23, 1874

Revenue, No 2

MY LORD,—I. I have had under my consideration in Council your Lordship's further despatches (No A, dated November 7, 1873, No B, dated November, 12, 1873, No 1 C, dated November, 21, 1873, No 534, financial, dated December 5, 1873, No 2 C, dated December 6, 1873, No 15, agricultural and horticultural, dated December 12, 1873, No 17, ditto, dated December 19, 1873, on the failure of the crops in certain districts of Bengal, on the amount of distress likely to arise in consequence, and on the measures you have been taking to meet it.

2 The estimates you have formed of the extent of failure have been founded on very careful inquiry by the officers best acquainted with the affected districts, on personal inspection by your Excellency, and on the able analyses and summaries of evidence which have been furnished by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal.

3. The measures you have taken for the mitigation of anticipated distress have been not less carefully concerted with the same authorities, after a minute comparison of the circumstances with those attending other periods of scarcity, and an anxious reference to the special causes which have led to former failures in averting the worst calamities of famine.

4. You inform me in the despatches now under reply that you are taking every precaution which has suggested itself to you and to your officers after

this review of the position of affairs, and that, with one exception, you have sanctioned every measure which has been recommended and have authorised every demand which has been made by the Government of Bengal.

5. The one exceptional measure which you have declined to sanction is that of prohibiting the export of food from the ports of Bengal.

6 In my despatch of December 1 I conveyed to you the approval of her Majesty's Government of your resolution to abstain from that measure. It seems, indeed, to have one recommendation not unimportant—that it would satisfy a considerable amount of native opinion. I am far from undervaluing this inducement, and it is one which may well prevail in many cases where less serious considerations are involved. But, after again weighing carefully the whole case and the grounds on which you came to your decision, her Majesty's Government desire to intimate their entire concurrence with you that the objections to this measure far outweigh any recommendation in its favour.

7. These objections are so many and so grave that nothing, in the opinion of her Majesty's Government, could justify having recourse to such a measure, unless it were a certainty or a reasonable probability that exports of food will so exhaust the resources of India as to render them incapable of affording the supplies which may be required for the affected districts.

8. Her Majesty's Government rejoice to believe that there is every reason to be confident of the sufficiency of the supplies of food which must remain available in the country. In many of the Provinces surrounding the affected districts there has been no failure of the crops, and in

some there has been an abundant harvest. The same observation applies generally to almost the whole of the rest of India, and to the important field of Burmah. Moreover, other markets are accessible to the Government, if it should find itself under any necessity of resorting to them.

9 Although, therefore, your Excellency and the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal have agreed in the general conclusion that the failure of the rains and the consequent amount of failure in the crops have been in this season very much the same as in the season of 1865-66 which resulted in the Orissa famine, there are three circumstances affecting the present case which establish an important difference. The first of these is the amount of careful provision and forecast to meet all probable contingencies which, from the experience gained in the Orissa famine, the Government has been able to employ, the second is the abundance of food supplies which must exist in India; the third is the facility for making that supply available which is afforded by the geographical position of the districts affected in 1873-74 as compared with the districts affected in 1865-66.

10 One of the main causes of the suffering in Orissa was the position of the Province—remote, comparatively inaccessible, out of the way of all the ordinary channels of trade, and of the ordinary lines of communication.

11 Behar and the other districts now affected are, on the contrary, among the most accessible districts of British India—traversed by all the great leading lines of communication, of river, of railway, and of road, while the active and timely exertions of the Lieutenant-Governor have been for some time specially directed to organising a detailed system of land carriage.

12 Under the worst circumstances of scarcity in India a large part of the people have always been able to supply themselves with food at the enhanced prices of the time. It is only a certain proportion of the population who are in danger of suffering distress, and for whom, therefore, it is necessary by special measures to provide.

13. You have proceeded on the principle that if the Government were to assume, or appear to assume, the duty of providing for the total commissariat of a population of twenty-four millions of people, it would undertake an operation which no executive machinery could accomplish, and which could only end in disastrous failure. You have therefore

given it to be understood that you would not supersede or interfere with the functions of the trader in grain as regards that part of the population which is able to purchase, and that you would confine yourself to providing work and wages in food, as well as more direct relief where such may be required, for that other portion of the people who are too poor to purchase at the enhanced prices likely to prevail, and whose wants, therefore, the ordinary grain trade could not be expected to supply.

14. Her Majesty's Government entirely approve of this principle of policy. They have not the means which you possess of estimating the percentage of the population for whom, in accordance with that principle, it has been requisite for you to purchase, to store, and to distribute an adequate supply of food. But her Majesty's Government know that this estimate has been made by you after inquiries more systematic and complete than have ever been made before, and they place entire confidence in the means you have taken, in conjunction with the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, to measure and to anticipate the necessities which may arise.

15 In the exercise of this confidence I have again to assure your Excellency of the support of her Majesty's Government in any measures you may think necessary for the saving of life and for the mitigation of distress. You wisely commenced a system of relief works at a very early date, with a view to save the labouring population from even the beginnings of distress, and from the debility which would render their labour valueless. You have also so selected and so distributed those works as to prevent as much as possible any necessity for large movement of the population. In the extensive employment of labour for the sake of charity there is generally much waste; but in India there is this great advantage, that many public works, both large and small, of the greatest permanent value, have already been projected and sanctioned, and have been made the subject of careful estimate. The more immediate and rapid execution of these works, while it will serve the immediate purpose of providing food as wages for the people who are in want, will also be a sure and lasting gain to the resources of the country.

I have the honour to be, my Lord,

Your Lordship's most obedient,

humble servant,

ARGYLL

V.

PRINCIPAL STIPULATIONS IN THE TREATY FOR THE
MUTUAL EXTRADITION OF FUGITIVE CRIMINALS, MADE
BETWEEN HER MAJESTY AND THE KING OF THE NETHER-
LANDS.

*Published in full in the English and Dutch Languages in
the London Gazette of August 7, 1874.*

In accordance with the Extradition Act of 1870, the provisions of this Treaty have the force of law in England from the time ordered by the Queen in Council—that is, from Aug 17, 1874. The list of crimes for which extradition will be granted differs from that in the schedule to that Act, an Amendment Act passed in 1873 having authorised the addition of some offences, among which is perjury. The list in this latest of the Extradition Treaties includes murder and the attempt, coining or uttering, forgery, embezzlement, or larceny, comprehending any larceny that by the Netherland Penal Law is not considered *eenvoudige diefstal (vol simple)*. The list also comprises the obtaining of money or goods by false pretences, including the crimes designated in the Netherland Penal Law as peculation, abstraction, or misapplication by “bailies” or public accountants, crimes against bankruptcy law which by the Netherland Penal Law are considered as fraudulent bankruptcy, perjury, rape, and arson; and participation in any of the crimes if such participation is punishable by the laws of both countries. In no case will either of the Governments give up its own subjects, and the word “subjects” is to include domiciled foreigners, if they have taken the precaution of marrying a citizen in their adopted country, and have had issue of the marriage. Another clause provides that extradition will be deferred if the person claimed is detained for debt. Political offences are excluded, and applications made in fact with a view to punish the fugitive for political offences

will be refused. Generally, a person surrendered may not be tried for an offence different from that on which the demand for extradition was founded, until after he has had a month in which to return. The demand for extradition will be made diplomatically, and the preliminary investigation will be held according to the laws of the country of refuge—that is to say, in the United Kingdom, before a metropolitan police magistrate. A fugitive criminal may, however, be apprehended on the warrant of a Justice before diplomatic demand, but he will then be discharged unless within fourteen days the formal requisition be made through the usual channel. All stolen articles and other proofs of the crime seized with the criminal will be given up with him, and each country will bear expenses incurred within its own limits. The Treaty includes the provision rather loosely connected with its principal objects, that if in any criminal matter pending in one country it is desired to take evidence in the other, such evidence may be taken by the judicial authorities in accordance with the laws on that subject in the country where the witness may be. The Treaty was concluded between Vice-Admiral Sir Edward Harris, K C B, our Minister at the Hague, acting on the part of Her Majesty, and Heer J L H A. Baron Gericke, Netherland Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Heer Gernt de Vries, Netherland Minister of Justice, acting on the part of the King of the Netherlands. It may be terminated by either party at six months' notice.

VI

INTERNATIONAL POSTAL CONVENTION.

Signed at Berne on October 9, by Delegates, assembled in Congress from Germany, Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Great Britain, Greece, Italy, Luxemburg, Norway, Sweden, the Netherlands, Portugal, Roumania, Servia, Russia, Switzerland, Turkey, the United States of America, and Egypt.

The Delegate from France declined to sign it, the French Government not feeling itself at liberty to give its adhesion to the Union until it had been approved by the National Assembly.

The substance of the Convention is as follows. The countries comprised in the treaty will form a single postal territory, and letters not exceeding 15 grammes in weight will be forwarded from any part of it to another for 25 c. As a transitional measure, however, and for fiscal or other reasons, any country may raise the rate to 32 c. or reduce it to 20 c. Letters exceeding that weight will be charged proportionately, and if not prepaid the rate will be doubled. In case of a sea transport more than 300 marine miles of 1,852 metres each, an extra rate not exceeding half the ordinary rate may be imposed. Newspapers, samples, and printed or lithographed matter will be charged 7 c. per 50 grammes, with the option for each country of temporarily raising it to 11 c. or lowering it to 5 c., and with a like provision as to sea transport. The weight of every sample is limited to 250 grammes, and that of every other package to 1,000 grammes. The charge for registration is not to exceed the inland rate in the country whence the letter is despatched, and if such a letter is lost, 50 fr. compensation will be paid, unless in the country where the loss occurs the post-office is not bound to give compensation. Stamps current in the country where a letter is posted are in all cases to be used in payment of postage and registration. Newspapers insufficiently stamped will not be forwarded, while letters will be charged double, minus the amount of postage already paid. Letters which have to be re-forwarded

will not be subject to an extra charge, unless they are sent from one country to another, in which case the latter will add its internal rate. Official correspondence on postal business will be free, but in no other case will letters be free from postage. The mails are to be forwarded by the quickest means of transit available for postal purposes in each country. Two francs per kilogramme for letters, and 25 cents per kilogramme for newspapers, &c., will be paid to the State through which they pass, or if the transit exceeds 570 metres, this rate may be doubled, but wherever the transit is now free or subject to a lower charge, no alteration will be made. The Government which arranges for the transport of letters by sea for more than 300 marine miles will have a right to be recouped, but not to the extent of more than 5 fr. per kilogramme for letters, and 50 c. for newspapers. The Indian mails and the railway mails between New York and San Francisco are not included in the treaty. Letters sent beyond the limits of the Union will be liable to whatever additional rate is fixed by existing conventions. Arrangements for post-office orders will be made hereafter. A central office for the purpose of giving information and facilitating settlements will be established at Berne at the expense of the contracting Powers, and a congress will be held at least triennially, the first to be held in Paris in 1877. The treaty is to come into operation on July 1, 1875, and is to remain in force for three years.

VII.

THE BRUSSELS CONFERENCE.

DESPATCHES FROM LORD DERBY TO
SIR ALFRED HORSFORD

No. 6.
(EXTRACT)

25th July

Her Majesty's Government have accepted the assurances of the Russian and other Governments that the Conference will not entertain any question relating to maritime operations or naval warfare, and they are glad to learn from these assurances that there is no intention of enlarging the scope of the Conference, so as to include the discussion of general principles of international law. At the same time, it will be your duty to guard carefully against being led, in the course of deliberations on other matters, into any discussions which may, however remotely, affect the subject of maritime warfare which her Majesty's Government have thus agreed with other Governments should be formally excluded, and if any papers are attempted to be presented to the Conference, or any statements made which refer to it, you will protest against such papers or statements being received, and apply to her Majesty's Government for instructions. You will also abstain from taking part in any discussion upon any points which may be brought forward which may appear to you to extend to general principles of international law not already universally recognised and accepted. With these reservations, her Majesty's Government have no hesitation in authorising you to assist, to the best of your judgment, in the deliberations of the Conference, with a view to any proposals of practical utility for alleviating the horrors of war. You will not be furnished with any plenipotentiary powers, as her Majesty's Government regard the Conference as assembled for the purpose of deliberation, and are not prepared to give their assent to any scheme for the regulation of military operations without first examining it in all its bearings. Her Majesty's Government accordingly reserve to themselves full liberty of action as to the manner in which they will deal with any proposals which may be made in the Conference.

29th August.

SIR,—I have received and laid before the Queen your despatch of the 23rd of

August, enclosing a copy of a draft "Projet de Protocole Final," which it is proposed should be signed by all the delegates at the close of the meeting of the Conference. You state that this draft has been seen by many, if not by all, of the delegates, and that notwithstanding the great divergence of opinion which still exists and is recorded in the protocols on some of the most important subjects brought before the Conference, they consider the paper in question of such a character that they personally see no objection to attaching their signature to it. Her Majesty's Government understand that this Final Protocol is merely intended to submit to the Governments who have sent delegates to the Conference the record of the proceedings which have taken place, and the result of the examination of the project laid before the Conference on behalf of the Emperor of Russia, with the modifications introduced into it, and the comments, reservations, and separate opinions of the delegates. Among these reservations is the declaration made by you at an early stage of the proceedings, that your instructions did not allow you to take part in discussions upon controverted points of International Law. Her Majesty's Government entirely approve of your having made this reservation, which guards against the supposition that your abstaining from entering into the discussion is to be taken as signifying your concurrence either in the original project or in the modifications introduced into it on the points upon which so much divergence of opinion has shown itself. The draft explains that the record of the proceedings is submitted to the Governments concerned "comme une enquête consciencieuse de nature à servir de base à un échange d'idées ultérieures entre eux. Il leur appartiendra d'apprécier ce qui dans ce travail peut devenir l'objet d'une entente, et ce qui nécessiterait un plus mûr examen." Her Majesty's Government have not yet considered the project of the Emperor of Russia as revised by the Conference, not having received any complete copy of it showing the modifications introduced. They have abstained during the Conference from giving you any authority to act in a plenipotentiary capacity, or to express any opinion upon them, and they continue to reserve their

judgment upon the proceedings, which they have always regarded as simply deliberative. They accept the explanation offered in the draft as sufficient to establish, beyond the risk of misunderstanding, the fact that, in signing the final protocol, the delegates sign in their individual capacity as merely submitting

the record of the proceedings, and not as pledging their Governments in any manner, and they authorise you to sign it accordingly. A copy of this despatch will be communicated hereafter to the several Governments by whom delegates have been sent to the Conference—I am,
&c (Signed) DERBY

VIII.

THE PURCHASE SYSTEM.

Royal Warrant, published in the London Gazette of November 10.

VICTORIA, R.—Victoria, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Queen, Defender of the Faith—To our right trusty and well-beloved councillor, James Plaisted, Baron Penzance, our right trusty and well-beloved councillor, John Somerset, Baron Hampton, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, our right trusty and well-beloved councillor, Edward Pleydell Bouverie, Esq, our trusty and well-beloved Edwin Beaumont Johnson, Esq, Companion of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, and major-general in our army, our trusty and well-beloved Arthur James Herbert, Esq, Companion of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, and major-general in our army, our trusty and well-beloved Reginald Earle Welby, Esq, Companion of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, our trusty and well-beloved Charles John Foster, Esq, major-general in our army, greeting:

Whereas by our Royal Warrant, dated the 20th day of July, in the thirty-fifth year of our reign, we did cancel and determine all regulations made by us or any of our Royal predecessors, or by any officers acting under our authority, regulating or fixing the prices at which any commissions in our forces might be purchased, sold, or exchanged, or in any way authorising the purchase, or sale, or exchange for money of any such commissions:

And whereas such regulations being cancelled, all traffic in commissions became illegal, and any officer or person buying or selling a commission became liable to penalty under the Act passed in the session holden in the fifth and sixth years of the reign of King Edward the Sixth, chapter 16, intituled "Against

buying and selling of offices," and the Act passed in the forty-ninth year of the reign of King George the Third, chapter 126, intituled "An Act for the prevention of the sale and brokerage of offices"

And whereas by the Act passed in the session holden in the thirty-fourth and thirty-fifth years of our reign, chapter 86, intituled "An Act for the better regulation of the Regular and Auxiliary Land Forces of the Crown," rules were enacted for compensating officers in certain circumstances, by the payment to them of the value of the commissions they might severally hold at the time of the cessation of purchase in the army:

And whereas, in our Royal Warrant, dated Oct 30, 1871, in providing for certain changes then necessary in respect of first appointments, regimental promotion, and exchanges, we did premise that such provision was pending a more complete revision of that section of our warrant of Dec 27, 1870, which governed the promotion of combatant officers:

And whereas certain officers of our army did memorialise us, alleging certain grievances which they stated that they suffered in consequence of the abolition of purchase.

And whereas an humble address was presented to us by the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in Parliament assembled, praying us to issue our Royal Commission for inquiry into the allegations of the said officers

And whereas by our Royal Commission, dated Oct 11, 1873, we did appoint Sir William Milbourne James, James Plaisted, Baron Penzance, and George Ward Hunt, to be our commissioners for the purpose of examining the allegations contained in the memorials of the officers aforesaid

And whereas the said commissioners, in their report to us, dated June 1, 1874, did represent that the question of compensation to officers ought not to be dissociated from that of promotion, but that the general question of the means proper to maintain the flow of promotion in the army for the future was not before them

And whereas an assurance was given by our responsible Minister that, notwithstanding the abolition of purchase, a reasonable rapidity of promotion, not differing essentially from that which obtained before such abolition, should be maintained for the future

And whereas it is desirable to make a full inquiry with a view to ascertain the best means of ensuring such rapidity of promotion, and making adequate provision for promotion throughout the army:

Now know ye that we, reposing great trust and confidence in your zeal, ability, and discretion, have authorised and appointed, and by these presents do authorise and appoint you, the said James Plaisted, Baron Penzance, John Somerset, Baron Hampton, Edward Pleydell Bouverie, Edwin Beaumont Johnson, Arthur James Herbert, Reginald Earle Welby, and Charles John Foster, or any three or more of you, to be our commissioners for the purpose of inquiring into the said matter.

And we do give and grant to you, or to any three or more of you, full power and authority to call before you such persons as you may deem necessary, and to obtain information from them upon the subject of your inquiry, and of every matter connected therewith, and also to call for, have access to, and examine all such official books, documents, papers, and records, as may appear to you, or to any three or more of you, likely to be of use in affording you the fullest information:

And we do hereby require and command you, or any three or more of you, to report to us under your hands and seals, with all convenient speed, upon the questions which by these presents we do refer to you, namely —What rapidity of promotion should be considered as having obtained, on the average, in the several arms under the purchase system, and by what means such rapidity may be best secured in the future with justice to the officers of all ranks in those corps which were under the purchase system; and, further, in what manner adequate promotion of officers to maintain the efficiency of the whole army in all its combatant branches may most effectively be maintained; and in what way the relations of the officers of our British forces to officers of our Indian Staff Corps may be so adjusted as to do justice to each

And we will and command, and by these presents ordain, that this our commission shall continue in full force and virtue, and that you, our said commissioners, or any three or more of you, may from time to time proceed in the execution thereof, although the same be not continued from time to time by adjournment

And for your assistance in the due execution of this our commission, we have made choice of our trusty and well-beloved Thomas Digby Pigott, Esq., to be secretary to this commission, and to attend you, whose services and assistance, as well as the services and assistance of such clerks and other persons as may appear to you to be necessary, we require you to use, from time to time, as occasion may require.

Given at our Court at Balmoral, this 7th day of November, 1874, in the 38th year of our reign.

GATHORNE HARDY.

By Her Majesty's command.

IX.

ABSTRACTS OF VARIOUS REPORTS PUBLISHED DURING THE YEAR.

No. 1

THE IMPERIAL CENSUS OF 1871

The following statistics are taken from the General Reports on the Census, published this year by the Registrar-General. The population of England and Wales on the Census-day, April 3, 1871, was

22,856,164. The females outnumbered the males by 450,000, even though among the latter was reckoned 143,898 men employed in the army, navy, and merchant service, and absent from our shores on the night of enumeration. The proportions of this aggregate population, classed under different ages, show a very trifling

relative variation from the results ascertained by former censuses. Of "babes and sucklings" (under one year) we find there were, in 1871, 686,372, of "infants" from one to five years, 2,394,442; of children from five to ten years, 2,714,932, of boys (ten to fifteen years), 1,225,209, and of girls (ten to fifteen), 1,207,224, of youths (fifteen to twenty years), 1,098,192, and of maidens (fifteen to twenty), 1,109,854, of young men (from twenty to thirty), 1,888,020, and of young women between the same ages, 1,980,586, of men of middle age, 2,547,084, and of women of middle age, 2,724,505. Of males 41, and of females 114, are returned as over 100 years of age, though there is a lack of satisfactory evidence in the great majority of such cases. The number of inhabited houses in England and Wales for the Census Year was 4,259,117, and the number of families 5,049,016, thus, in England, families outnumber houses in the proportion of about six to five. In Scotland, as also in most continental countries, where large piles of buildings are subdivided and sublet in flats or tenements, the disproportion is much greater. More than a million of persons living in England and Wales were born elsewhere, the vast majority of these being adults, but as 800,000 of these were born in Scotland, Ireland, and the islands in the British Seas, and 70,000 in the colonies or in India, the actual foreign immigration is reduced, after all, to very modest proportions. No more than 139,445 persons registered by the Census of 1871 were born in foreign parts.

The gathering of men together in cities and towns is made a special feature of comment in the census of 1871. It is very remarkable that the number, as well as the population of the places registered as towns, has increased enormously since the date of the last census. In 1861 there were 781 "towns" in England, in 1871 there were 938; and the aggregate population had risen from less than eleven millions to more than fourteen millions. Thus Barrow-in-Furness and Middlesborough, which were petty villages twenty years ago, are now prosperous communities of 18,000 and 40,000 inhabitants respectively.

Another division of the report furnishes interesting statistics relating to the occupations of the population. The "Professional Class"—which includes all the public services, the learned professions, and the pursuit, as a business, of literature, art, and science—is computed to comprise 680,000 persons. The "Domestic Class," embracing all persons em-

ployed, so far as they are employed at all, in houses, takes in all wives, mothers, and mistresses of households, all hotel, inn, and lodginghouse keepers, and all servants, this class amounts to more than five millions. The "Commercial Class" includes those who deal with the production and distribution of articles of trade, and as might be anticipated, the numbers of this class show a large and steady increase. The "Agricultural Class," numbering more than 1,600,000, comes next. The "Industrial Class" is computed to absorb 5,137,000 persons, about one-third of these being women. The "Indefinite and Non-productive Class" embraces a considerable number of "general labourers, vagrants, criminals," &c., as well as 168,000 persons of rank and property "without occupation," and 7,500,000 children.

These figures are for England and Wales alone, the population of Great Britain and Ireland combined amounting to 31,000,000.

Next comes the enumeration of the rest of the empire, which is unfolded, for the first time, fully and in a concise form in this volume.

In Europe, the formal dominion of England is confined within very narrow limits, it includes Heligoland with five square miles of territory, Gibraltar with less than two, and Malta with 115—the last two being military stations, with garrisons amounting to some 14,000 men. The population of Heligoland, in 1871, was 1,913, Gibraltar, 26,216, and of Malta, 149,084. One English town of the second order would have outnumbered the sum total of these our continental subjects.

Crossing the Atlantic, we meet in the dominion of Canada a very different state of actual facts, and a still more different prospect. A population but slightly exceeding that of Scotland, inhabits a country ten times the extent of Scotland, and is increasing steadily, but not rapidly, at something like an average rate of 14 per cent in the decade. Of the several provinces of which the dominion is made up, Ontario (which contains the purest Anglo-Saxon population) had, in 1871, 1,620,851 inhabitants, Quebec had 1,101,516, New Brunswick had 285,594, Nova Scotia had 387,800. Prince Edward Island, which only joined the Confederation a few months ago, had 94,021, and Newfoundland, which has not yet formally joined it, but is on the point of doing so, numbers 146,000 inhabitants. Manitoba (formerly known as the Red River Settlement) and British Columbia have not yet made their returns, and no

census has hitherto been attempted in the vast but most sparsely peopled territory ruled down to a recent date by the Hudson's Bay Company. The Bermudas are reckoned, rather loosely, with our North American possessions, and including these, but excluding the unenumerated Provinces of the North-West, the total population of this section of our dominion is set down at 3,789,670, inhabiting an area of 3,376,925 square miles.

The West India Islands, with an area of 13,109 square miles, have a population of a little more than one million. The rate of increase is highly satisfactory, and there is abundant room for the development of the human race in this splendid climate and genial soil. Jamaica, for instance, which had 377,000 inhabitants in 1844, and 441,000 in 1861, had reached, in 1871, the aggregate of 506,154, and in the last ten years there has been no devastating epidemic. In Barbadoes, the black and mixed population is growing in numbers, while the whites are dwindling. Passing from the islands of the Mexican Gulf to the Continent, we light first upon Honduras, or Belize, a sort of dependency of Jamaica, with a population of 24,710, of whom only 377 are whites. British Guiana is in every way more important, it reckons 193,491 inhabitants, excluding the "aborigines," but including 48,976 "immigrants from Asia," commonly known as "Coolies." The Falkland Islands, with 803 inhabitants, close the list of our American possessions.

In the African continent and the adjacent islands we claim to be masters of 236,860 square miles of territory, peopled by 1,813,450 inhabitants, of which the island of Ascension has 27, and that of St. Helena 6,241. On the mainland, Sierra Leone, with 38,936 inhabitants in 1871, shows a decrease during the ten years; the Gambia Settlements, on the other hand, with 14,190 inhabitants, show an increase, but only a conjectural estimate can be formed of the population of the Gold Coast, which is computed to be about 400,000. The island of Lagos, which was ceded to us in 1861, has 62,021 inhabitants, of whom 94 are whites. In South Africa, our three colonised or partially colonised Settlements—the Cape, Griqualand, and Natal—comprise an area of 229,582 square miles, and have an estimated population of 961,505 inhabitants. The authors of the Report complain that the statistics of these colonies are very imperfect.

In the Indian seas, before we reach our great empire on the mainland, we have to take note of some important insular possessions; the Mauritius, with its

dependent islets, has an area of 708 square miles closely packed with a thriving population of 330,460 inhabitants, the Indian immigration numbering here on the census day 153,703.

Before touching on the vast proportions of the Indian Empire, properly so called, we may pass out of the geographical order to our Australasian Settlements. Here, in marked contrast to the severe judgment passed upon the statistical returns from the South African Colonies, the authors of the Report are able to bestow unmixed approval on the manner in which the work of enumeration is done by the Colonial Registrar-General. We begin with West Australia, which has not yet been, in the proper sense of the word, colonised, and which has only 24,785 inhabitants to its 978,000 square miles of domain. South Australia is a very different instance of colonisation, with an area of 760,000 square miles, it has 185,266 white and 3,369 aboriginal inhabitants. But this measure of success is far surpassed by Victoria, which, with an area of 88,000 square miles, has 731,528 inhabitants (including 17,935 Chinese and 1,300 aborigines). New South Wales "has, on its 323,437 square miles, 503,981 inhabitants," the population in 1821 having been no more than 29,000. Queensland, which split off quite in our own day from New South Wales, has 120,104 inhabitants, four times as many as it had only ten years ago. Tasmania, on the other hand, shows a very slow rate of progress, its present population of 99,328 being only 10 per cent greater than that registered in 1861. Norfolk Island contains a total population of 401 souls. New Zealand, "the England of the southern hemisphere," is "one of the youngest born of the Colonies and one of the most progressive." The white population numbered, in 1871, 256,393, while the aborigines (all, except a couple of thousands, established in the North Island) were estimated at 37,500. In 1851 the immigrant inhabitants were only 26,000 in number.

We must now return to the greatest and most splendid dominion of the empire. India is divided into 12 Provinces, two ruled by "Governors," three by Lieutenant-Governors, and seven by Chief Commissioners, the Viceroy being supreme over all, it is distributed for administrative purposes into 53 divisions, 231 revenue and judicial districts, and 1,114 executive sub-divisions. The village is the "recognised territorial unit," and averages in area something like the fourth part of an English parish. The popula-

tion of the English Empire in India is 191,307,070, distributed over an area of 938,366 square miles, and inhabiting 487,061 villages. In Bengal and Behar we have a population of 56,000,000, which, as the authors of the Report (without, we presume, any reference to the present crisis) remark, "producing and feeding on the simplest diet, has greatly increased under our pacific rule, and reminds us of Ireland, where the population, uninsured under a Poor Law by the landlords against death by starvation, multiplied up to its utmost limit of 8,000,000, and more, between 1831 and the famine year." The North-West Provinces reckon 30,769,000 inhabitants; Oude, 11,220,000, the Punjab, 17,596,000; the Central Provinces, 9,066,038, and British Burmah, 2,562,823. The Madras Presidency contains 31,000,000, Bombay and Sind something more than 14,000,000.

The religious distinctions recorded in the Indian Census are among the most interesting statistical facts. Unfortunately, the returns are still imperfect, Madras, Bombay, and Sind being as yet unascertained. Of those whose creeds are enumerated, we find Christians, 197,800, Mahomedans, 35,963,000, Hindus, 97,351,000, Buddhists, and Jains, 2,319,151, and "others," 9,135,000.

The Island of Ceylon showed a population of 2,405,287, Singapore had 97,000 inhabitants, Penang, 67,000, Province Wellesley, 71,000, and Malacca, so recently raised to polemical importance, 77,000. The Island of Hongkong and the Peninsula of Kowloon have an aggregate population of 120,000.

We have thus completed the circuit of the Empire. The result of the survey is briefly summed up in the Report, and the figures, concise and few, are pregnant with interest. "The Empire possesses 7,769,449 square miles of territory, the United Kingdom, 121,608 square miles, the Colonies, 6,685,021, India and Ceylon, 962,820. There are 38 persons to a square mile in the Empire, 260 in the United Kingdom, 201 in India, and 1.41 in the Colonies." It should be observed, however, that in some parts of India the density of the population more than equals that of England. The Queen rules over 234,762,593 souls, her people dwell in 44,142,651 houses, the area of the lands they inhabit is not less than 7,769,449 square miles.

No 2.

THE POST OFFICE.

The twentieth annual report of the General Post Office bears the signature

of Lord John Manners, although, as it carries the history of that department only down to the beginning of the current year, the results which it records belong to the administration of Mr. Monsell (now Lord Emly), and of his immediate successor, Dr. Lyon Playfair. It is divided into ten heads, respectively devoted to—1, An account of the Inland Service in general, in respect of new offices, fresh deliveries and collections of letters, 2, letters, stamps, and other details of the offices, 3, the Telegraphic Department, 4, the Money Order Office, 5, Post Office Savings Bank, 6, annuities and life assurances, 7, licences issued, 8, Foreign and Colonial posts, 9, official staff, 10, and lastly, an abstract of revenue and expenditure. Under each and all of these heads the Report shows a steady onward progress.

Under the first of these heads the Postmaster-General is able to report the establishment of 270 new post-offices in the United Kingdom in 1873, raising the total to 12,500, including 880 head offices. The road letter-boxes, too, were increased by an addition of 700 fresh ones, making nearly 9,000 in all. This increase may be estimated at its real worth by looking back just five-and-thirty years ago, when there were only 4,500 receiving-houses. In 1864 there were a little over 15,000, and now there are 21,500 receptacles for our correspondence, more than 1,600 of them being in the metropolis. At nearly 660 places free deliveries have been established for the first time, and at more than 900 others the deliveries have been increased either in area or in number. As far as can be ascertained by calculation, the number of letters which passed through the post in 1873 within the United Kingdom was about 907 millions, the number of post-cards about 72 millions, of book-packets 129 millions, and of newspapers 125 millions, making a total of 1,233 millions of articles posted. In every one of these there is an increase upon the previous year to report, except in respect of post-cards, which show a decrease of about 5 per cent. The Postmaster-General reckons the aggregate increase at about 4 per cent., after allowing for this trifling drawback; and in his appendix he shows by statistical tables that whereas in 1839—the last year of high-priced postage—three letters were put into the post by each inhabitant of this land, we now each of us on an average post 29, valentines, of course, included. We have stated that the post-cards are the only element which show a decrease, but we do the Post Office a wrong, for we have to report a decline

also in the "Missing Letter Department," and in those which come back to the Dead-Letter Office. This seems the more wonderful when we read that the number of letters posted last year without any address was 18,700, out of which nearly 500 contained cash, checks, or bills of exchange, to the aggregate value of more than 13,000*l*. Strange that such carelessness should be found in a commercial country. It is not so strange that during the same time nearly 600 postage-stamps of various values were found loose in different letter-boxes. In most cases, these had been detached from letters and newspapers to which they had been affixed by slovenly and heedless hands, while others had fallen out of letters containing remittances in postage-stamps, not properly fastened. Of the extra work done for the public on the 14th of February, Lord John Manners writes—"A large number of valentines still continue to be sent every year through the post, and some idea of the magnitude of the extra work thereby thrown upon the department may be gathered from the fact that on the eve of last Valentine's Day no fewer than 306 extra mail-bags, each 3 ft long and 2 ft. wide, were brought into requisition at the chief office alone for the conveyance of valentines posted in London for despatch to the different parts of the kingdom."

The whole of the staff, machinery, and plant connected with the Telegraph Department of the Post Office has been removed from the old building in Telegraph Street to the new building on the west side of St. Martin's-le-Grand; and the transfer is a matter of such historical importance that, although, strictly speaking, it belongs to the current year, Lord John Manners has recorded it in his report for 1873. He writes—"Soon after the return of the new year the removal was effected. So well had everything been arranged beforehand, and so zealously and accurately were the arrangements carried out, that no interruption of any kind occurred, and, indeed, the clerks in the provincial offices were not aware of the change. The great telegraphic business which up to the 17th of January had been conducted in the old building was on that night, as the clock struck 10, taken up without the slightest hesitation or confusion in the New Post Office, where it has been carried on ever since." The business of the telegraphs, however, though not interrupted by this change of head-quarters, suffered on two occasions during the year through causes beyond human control; once in February through a heavy snowstorm, which broke

many of the wires, and again through an equally heavy gale in December. The Postmaster-General reports that the revenue arising from telegrams continues to increase, the number of such communications, exclusive of communications for the Press, having risen 17 per cent. above the previous year, while the income from wires laid down from the Post Office to private houses has risen from 38,000*l*. to 47,000*l*.

"There has been a large increase in the telegrams for newspapers; the number of words received for transmission having risen from 41 out of 26 to nearly 38 millions. That is, in other words, nearly 50 per cent. This number however, great as it is, gives no adequate idea of the work done, because many of the messages have been sent to more than one newspaper. Thus, in reality, the actual number of words forwarded last year was more than 214 millions. On one occasion, when an unusual number of events of interest were reported from various parts of the country, upwards of 300,000 words of news, or about 150 columns of the *Times*, were transmitted from the Central Telegraph Office in London in a single night. The increase in the business done for newspapers has been accompanied by an increased payment of 10,000*l*."

Two hundred and thirty additional money-order offices have been opened at home, and the system has been very much extended abroad, Smyrna, Valparaiso, the Mauritius, Coquimbo, and the whole of Egypt, being now included in its sphere of operations. The inland orders sent during last year show an increase of about 8 per cent on the previous twelvemonth, their aggregate amount having been in excess of 25 millions. The depositors in the Post Office Savings' Banks have increased by about 120,000, and the offices themselves by nearly 250. In the London district there are now 560. The total of deposits has shown an increase of about 2 millions, so that at the end of the year there were 21 millions standing to the credit of the industrious portions of the community. The savings' bank system is being gradually adopted in our Colonies and in foreign countries. The Post Office Annuities and Life Assurances are also steadily on the increase.

As to foreign and colonial posts, the establishment is recorded of a line of service between Melbourne and Point de Galle, between Brisbane and Singapore, *via* Torres Straits, between Sydney and San Francisco, calling at New Zealand, the Fiji Islands, and at Honolulu, each

and all superseding former contracts, and also a new agreement with the Government of Egypt for the conveyance of our Indian and Australian mails through that country, thus saving both time and cost.

Meantime, as the work of the department increases, so also does the staff of the office, the total of its *employés* being now about 42,000, comprising 12,500 postmasters, 9,000 clerks, and upwards of 20,000 sorters, carriers, and messengers. Out of this total, nearly 9,500 belong to the London district, and of these 5,000 are attached to the chief office in St. Martin's-le-Grand. Our readers are already aware that many female clerks are employed in the telegraph work, Lord John Manners, however, informs us in addition, that last year, in pursuance of the arrangement entered into a few years ago for the adoption of female employment in the office, a new class of young women was last year formed to act as clerks in the Return Letter Department, and that the Contoller reports most favourably of the result.

In conclusion, the gross revenue of the Post Office last year was in round number no less than 5,348,000*l.*, showing a total increase on the previous year of 139,000*l.* in the receipts for both postage and money orders. The expenditure, during the same period, was 3,793,000*l.*, and its increase upon that for 1872 was only 108,000*l.*

3

THE METROPOLITAN POLICE

From Colonel Henderson's annual report for the year 1873 to the Home Secretary, it seems that on the last day of 1873, the strength of the Metropolitan Police was 9,883, being an increase of 122 men upon the strength of the force at the corresponding date in 1872. The duties of the metropolis proper absorbed 18 superintendents, 184 inspectors, 770 sergeants, and 7,113 constables, the royal dockyards and military stations, 629 men and officers, and the establishments at which policemen are employed at the cost of private persons or departments, 540. The class of recruits seeking employment in the force during the year, it seems, was above the average, and the number was sufficient to fill the vacancies. During the year 234 men were dismissed for misconduct, and 171 were compelled to resign, and of these two classes we are told that 174 were men of less than one year's service—a fact which surely proves that recruits are enlisted without sufficient scrutiny of antecedents or

capacity? Judged by the test of dismissal or forced resignation, the conduct of the men contrasts favourably with 1872, when the number who left the force in these two classes was 411, against 405 last year. The number of voluntary resignations also shows a marked decrease—from 383 in 1872, to 216 in 1873. The number of deaths was 44, and the percentage of deaths during a period of five years shows a gratifying decrease. In the five years ending December 31, it was 78, while for the subsequent five years it was only 48. The proportion of old constables shows a steady increase, and Colonel Henderson remarks that it is a good test of the popularity of the service. In 1873 there were 5,934 men whose service exceeded five years. The number placed on the pension list during the year was 209, and the London rough may be credited with a certain proportion of the invaliding, some of the men having been pensioned owing to injuries received by them while on duty. The number of persons taken into custody decreased from 78,203 in 1872 to 73,807 in 1873. The principal items in the decrease are in the assaults, both common assaults and assaults on the police, which, taken together with attempts to rescue and obstruction of the police in the performance of their duty, decreased from 11,924 in 1872 to 9,639 in 1873. There was also a considerable diminution in the number of suspicious characters and vagrants who came under the cognisance of the police. There seems to be a continued diminution in the number of crimes of burglary and housebreaking, of robbery and attempts to rob, and of larceny to the value of 5*l.* in dwellings. The number of crimes of burglary and housebreaking was 328, the smallest number in any year since 1865, and of robbery and attempts to rob there were only 52 offences, the smallest number since 1864. On the other hand, the number of known thieves and depredators, receivers of stolen goods, and suspected persons in the records has increased from 3,116 in 1872 to 3,467 in 1873. Of these 703 are under sixteen years of age. This increase appears at first rather alarming, but it is explained by the more accurate keeping of the records, as a Thieves' Register is now kept at each police station, containing the names and antecedents of all criminal and suspected persons known to reside in the division, and this register is open for the information of those concerned. There are 87 houses known to be kept by receivers of stolen goods, 219 persons were taken into custody for this offence during the year, of whom 147

were committed for trial, and 101 convicted and sentenced. The number of summonses taken out against public, beer, and refreshment houses has decreased in a very remarkable manner, the average of the last three years having been 411 against an average of 1,248 during the preceding three, and the annual number has decreased from 1,036 in 1870 to 294 in 1873.

One important duty discharged by the police is that of attending to persons who meet with accidents in the streets, and as railway directors lose no opportunity of reminding us, with too much truth, that London streets are far more dangerous than the worst-managed line of railway, the Metropolitan Police have no secumre in discharging this duty. During 1873 we find that 1,805 persons suffering from accidents were taken to the hospitals, and 1,063 from other causes, making a total of 2,868 cases. The number of persons killed in the streets was 125 in 1873, against 118 in 1872, the number injured shows a slight decrease—2,513 against 2,677 in 1872. Out of the 125 deaths, 82 were caused by light and heavy carts, vans, and drays, and out of the 2,513 injuries, 1,369 were caused by the same unlicensed vehicles. The police attended 573 fires, and a total of 14,789 men were employed, some of them, as at the Pantechnicon, for several consecutive days. Nor are hounds the only concern of the police, for they apprehended 10,136 dogs wandering in the streets and not under proper control, and sent them to the Dogs' Home at Battersea, except 868 who were restored to their owners, and 28 "otherwise disposed of." During the last three years we find that no less than 29,129 dogs have been thus "taken up" by the police and removed from the streets.

Eight new police stations have been built and opened during the year, and the constant increase of houses and population in the suburban districts brings corresponding demands for additional stations and police assistance. The new streets and squares opened and placed in charge of the police during the year were 154 in number, and altogether covered 26 miles and 890 yards. This is an increase on the last year, when only 20 miles of new streets were opened, but it is still much below the average of former years. The number of new houses built during the year was 7,687, a considerable reduction on former years. In 1872, 11,179 new houses were built. The public will be glad to hear that the number of fixed points, which (says the Report) have become so much appreciated,

has been increased from 211 in 1872 to 248 in 1873, and 161 constables are placed in short beats near hackney carriage standings to maintain order, inspect the vehicles and horses, and render assistance when required.

The registration of habitual criminals has been continued as heretofore, but the numbers on the registry have increased so rapidly that there are now 117,568 names on the register, and they increase at an average of 30,000 per annum, very few inquiries have been received from any but the Metropolitan Police, and the identifications have been very few. Only 950 inquiries have been received from outside the Metropolitan Police district since the establishment of the register in 1869, and 3,006 from the Metropolitan Police. The number of identifications has only been 890, out of 3,957 inquiries, and as regards those made by the Metropolitan Police, a large proportion could be identified without reference to the register at all.

No 4

JUDICIAL STATISTICS

It appears from the Judicial Statistics for 1873 that in the last three years crime has neither increased nor decreased absolutely, but that relatively to population it has decreased. Taking, however, a wider range in our comparison, we find that the number of indictable offences has decreased 12.9 per cent compared with 1870, and, with the exception of 1868, has uniformly decreased since 1866, compared with which year crime, as measured by reported indictable offences, has decreased by 27.76 per cent. In respect to offences summarily dealt with, we find that the number of convictions in 1873 was 456,705, being an increase of 7.8 per cent. on the previous year, and in offences of this class there has, no doubt, been of late years an uniform increase. But as the offences thus dealt with vary much in their character, it is necessary to analyze the list a little, and it is thus seen that the whole increase of this year—viz., 30,185—can be more than accounted for by the increase in the cases of drunkenness, which number 182,941 against 151,084 in 1872. The great army of criminals who make their living by preying on the public is returned at 75,531, of whom, happily, 31,330 were in custody at the date of the return. From the record of the birthplace of those committed to prison it may be inferred that no less than 11,000 of the above are Irish immigrants, and no doubt many of the

remainder born of Irish parents Of the 45,201 who are at large, 6,307 are under 16 years of age

Judging by the proportion of criminals to population, the Metropolis stands higher for morality than any other place, there being only one criminal in 1,111 people, the commercial ports, which come next, cannot come near this standard, their proportion of criminals being twice as great, the manufacturing towns and the pleasure towns do not differ very materially, and none except the seats of hardware manufacture come near the agricultural counties and towns dependent on them in respect of the criminality of the population, the proportion being highest in the south and south-west counties, travellers in which districts may reckon that among every 256 persons they see there is one who has either been in prison or is known to have been living dishonestly within the year Reference to the returns of former years will show that the decrease in the criminal population has been effected in the great towns, the agricultural counties and towns not having materially improved The Metropolitan district comprises somewhat less than one-fifth of the population of England and Wales, but more than one-third of all the crime in the country is committed in it, the smaller proportion of known criminals in it must, therefore, be due to the facilities afforded them by so large and dense a population to evade the observation of the police The force of police we maintain to control the criminal army above enumerated numbers 28,550, of whom 10,663 are in or within 15 miles of London

One of the most noticeable facts about our prison population is the record of the countries which rear the criminal stock The natives of England and Wales do not furnish criminals in due proportion to their numbers in the population, for whereas those who are not natives comprise only one-twenty-third of our population, they furnish one-fifth of our criminals Scotland furnishes 23 per cent, but Ireland constitutes no less than 142 per cent, and the Irish female constitutes no less than one-fifth of the whole of the female prison population of England and Wales By the last Census it appears that out of 22,712,266 who formed the population of England and Wales, there were 566,540 of Irish birth, and in this proportion it might be expected that this contingent would furnish between 3,000 and 4,000 to our prisons, but instead of that we have 22,100 criminals of Irish birth in our prisons last year It cannot be doubted that as

many of the descendants of those criminals will follow the same pursuits, so the parents of many of the English-born prisoners were themselves of Irish birth, and these facts are worthy of deep consideration from many points of view. From whatever cause it may arise, it is quite clear that the proportion of criminals furnished by Ireland to the United Kingdom is excessive, for whereas the population of England, Wales, and Ireland together is about 28,000,000, of which about 6,000,000, or 21 4 per cent, are Irish, the offenders who pass through the prisons in these countries number about 176,000 in a year, of whom 50,000, or 28 4 per cent., are Irish, besides those who are of Irish extraction

No 5.

THE INLAND REVENUE.

The sixteenth report of her Majesty's Commissioners on the Inland Revenue, for the year ending March 31, 1873, states that the total of the Revenue for the past year shows an increase of 830,357*l.* over that for 1872, an increase, say the Commissioners, which, as rising purely from the natural growth of the Revenue, has never before been recorded in the annals of their department The items which go, according to the "general statement," to the making of 45,645,252*l.*, the grand total for the year, are the Excise, Stamps, Taxes, and Income Tax, and whereas the results from the last two, as compared with the returns of the previous year, show a respective decrease of 13,148*l.* and 1,924,365*l.*, the first two exceed by 2,518,386*l.* and 258,484*l.* respectively their contributions to the Revenue of 1872 The enormous increase of the Excise is derived almost entirely from spirits and beer, the return from the former being 1,474,947*l.*, and that from the latter 873,220*l.* in excess of what they were in 1872 The duty on race-horses shows a falling off to the amount of 801*l.* A most notable increase is to be seen in the quantity of British spirits exported in the last year. The returns for France, indeed, shew a considerable decrease, but this is more than counter-balanced by the increase of supplies to Portugal and Australia. The total quantity of exports is upwards of 250,000 gallons in excess of those which left this country in 1872 An important item under this head is the illicit distillation, and the Commissioners, with reason, call special attention to the fact that in 1873 the number of detections diminished in England by one-third, and that though in Scotland there is an increase of two,

yet the total number effected in that part of the kingdom does not exceed ten, while in Ireland the reduction is very considerable. This latter fact is mainly due to the efforts of the Royal Irish Constabulary, whose efficiency and success are evidenced by a quotation from the report of their Inspector-General, Colonel Sir John Stewart Wood, C B. It is also worthy of note that, though the number of detections is considerably lower than in any previous year, there is a material increase in the amount of penalties recovered. As the lowest penalty by law allowed is 6*l*, or in default three months' imprisonment, this fact seems to bear witness to the improvement from legitimate causes in the circumstances of that class of people who were hitherto wont to look for a subsistence from such and similar illicit practices. A decrease in the Railway duty of 20,489*l* is explained by the fact that the companies have refused to pay duty on a much larger number of third-class fares than in 1872, and it is pointed out by the Commissioners that the "interminable delays" by which the law allows the companies to prevent the settlement of legal questions, besides seriously affecting the Revenue, are likely to prove some day still more prejudicial to the shareholders. Two companies, however—the South-Eastern and the Metropolitan—have acquiesced in the view of the law taken by the Commissioners, and are paying the full duty by them demanded. The net decrease of 13,141*l*. in the Land Tax and House Duty is made up of a falling off in the House Duty of 19,528*l*., and in arrears of Assessed Taxes of 2,998*l*., and the total set-off against an increase of 9,378*l* from the Land Tax will give the required result. In the opinion of the Commissioners, the decrease in the former of these two duties is to be attributed to the Metropolitan Valuation Act. It has been found impossible to maintain the assessment made in the revaluation of 1871 and the result is now seen of the successful appeals which have been made since that year by a considerable proportion of householders against the new charges. With regard to the last item we shall notice in the Report—the Income Tax—the remarks of the Commissioners are not without their value. Last year, that is, in 1872, they attributed the agitation which then prevailed against this tax to the increase in the rate of duty, and to the activity of their surveyors. Now the duty has been reduced, and the activity, though as great as ever, has been tempered with caution and moderation. Consequently, though the tax cannot be supposed to have ma-

terially increased in popularity, the Commissioners have had to encounter "none of those specific demands for injury and redress, examples of which were furnished by Exeter, Bath, &c." As may be expected, the catalogue of frauds practised on the Revenue through this tax is a long one, and it now appears that a new one has been added to the list. In 1843 the tax was remitted on all dividends of foreign loans where the holders of such securities were *bonâ fide* foreigners residing abroad. It is now, however, known that this remission, at the time of great service to the money market, has had a serious effect on the Revenue. Coupons are purchased from British subjects resident in this country, discounted, and sent abroad to foreign agents, who return them as the property of foreign residents. It can well be understood how such and similar frauds, if successfully practised, must tend to decrease our revenue, and it is therefore satisfactory to know that the Commissioners consider that they have succeeded in "framing regulations which, while as little as possible interfering with the operations of trade, will, they hope, not only prevent fraud in future, but add very largely to the Revenue derived from Income Tax."

No 6

PATENTS FOR INVENTIONS.

The Annual Report for 1873 of the Commissioners of Patents for Inventions bears the signatures of the Lord Chancellor, the Master of the Rolls, the Attorney General, and the Solicitor-General.

The number of applications for letters-patent recorded during the year was 4,294; the number of patents passed thereon was 2,974, the number of specifications filed in pursuance thereof was 2,906, the number of applications lapsed or forfeited (the applicants having neglected to proceed for their patents within the six months of protection) was 1,320, and the number of patents void (the patentees having neglected to file specifications in pursuance thereof) was 68.

British patents are granted for fourteen years, but, under the Patent Law Amendment Act, they are subject to the condition that they shall be void at the expiration of three years and of seven years respectively, unless there shall be paid an extra stamp duty of 50*l* at the end of the third year, and a still further duty of 10*l*. at the termination of the seventh year. During the fourteen years between 1852, when the Act was passed,

and 1866, 29,807 patents were granted. The additional progressive stamp duty of 50*l* was paid at the end of the third year on 8,372 of that number, and 21,437 became void. The additional progressive stamp duty of 100*l* was paid at the end of the seventh year on 2,891 of the 8,372 remaining in force at the end of the third year, and 5,481 became void. The Commissioners state that of every 3,000 applications for provisional protection 1,950 reach the patent, and 550 pay the additional stamp duty required at the expiration of the third year—1,450 patents, or nearly three-fourths of the whole, thereby becoming void. Probably not more than 100 of the remaining 550 will pay the additional stamp duty required at the end of the seventh year. Therefore the Commissioners strongly advocate the retention of these heavy duties as an efficient means of sifting useless and speculative patents from those which are really valuable. The total cost of a patent for the fourteen years is 165*l*.

The inventive genius of the country gives signs of no diminution, but, on the contrary, the number of applications steadily increases. The Patent Office far more than pays its own expenses, and since 1852 has amassed the substantial aggregate surplus of 1,108,204*l*. The balance-sheet for 1873 shows an income of 144,761*l*., and a net surplus (after paying revenue duties) of 68,404*l*.

All the provisional, complete, and final specifications filed in the office upon

patents granted since 1852 have been printed and published, with lithographed outline copies of the drawings accompanying them, and the specifications of patents under the old law, dating from 1711 to 1852, have also been printed, and are sold to the public at prices which merely cover the cost of printing and paper. Indices are also published annually and weekly, and give the names of inventors and the subject matter of their specifications. Complete sets of the publications of the Commissioners of Patents—each set including upwards of 3,150 volumes, and costing for printing and paper above 3,000*l*—have been presented to the authorities of the most important towns in the United Kingdom, on condition that the works shall be daily accessible to the public, for reference or copying, free of charge. Similar gifts have also been sent to the public offices, some of the learned societies, British Colonies, and foreign States, and portions of the publications have been widely disseminated both at home and abroad.

A free library and reading-room are open to the public daily in the office of the Commissioners of Patents in Chancery Lane, and in addition the printed specifications, indices, and other publications of the Commissioners, the library includes a collection of the leading British and foreign scientific journals and text-books in the various departments of art and science.

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE

The following are the receipts into and payments out of the Exchequer between April 1, 1873, and March 31, 1874:—

REVENUE AND OTHER RECEIPTS.

	Budget Estimate for the Financial Year 1873-74	Total Receipts into the Exchequer from April 1, 1873, to March 31, 1874	Total Receipts for corresponding Period of last Year
Balance, April 1, 1873 —	£	£	£
Bank of England	—	10,213,574	7,706,924
Bank of Ireland	—	1,779,131	1,635,728
		11,992,705	9,342,652
REVENUE			
Customs	19,603,000	20,339,000	21,033,000
Excise	25,747,000	27,172,000	25,785,000
Stamps	10,050,000	10,550,000	9,917,000
Land Tax and House Duty	2,350,000	2,324,000	2,337,000
Income Tax	5,575,000	5,691,000	7,500,000
Post Office	5,012,000	5,792,000	4,820,000
Telegraph Service	1,220,000	1,210,000	1,015,000
Crown Lands	375,000	375,000	375,000
Miscellaneous	3,880,000	3,882,657	3,796,770
Revenue	73,762,000	77,335,657	76,608,770
Total, including balance		89,328,362	83,951,422
OTHER RECEIPTS.			
Advances, under various Acts, repaid to the Exchequer		2,274,669	2,940,570
Money raised for Fortifications and Military Barracks		500,000	308,000
Totals		92,103,031	89,199,992

EXPENDITURE AND OTHER PAYMENTS.

	Estimate for the Financial Year 1873-74	Total Issues from Exchequer to meet Payments from April 1, 1873, to March 31, 1874	Total Issue from Exchequer for corresponding Period of last Year
EXPENDITURE			
Interest of Debt†	26,750,000	26,706,725	26,804,853
Other charges on Consolidated Fund†	1,570,000	1,603,085	1,574,951
Supply Services†	848,307,000	48,156,700	42,334,611
Estimate	76,627,000		
Expenditure		76,466,510	70,714,448
OTHER PAYMENTS			
Advances, under various Acts, issued from the Exchequer		3,418,165	2,653,761
Expenses of Fortifications and Military Barracks		500,000	308,000
Exchequer Bills, paid off		319,500	326,000
Surplus Income applied to reduce Debt		3,895,892	3,205,078
Balances on March 31, 1874 —		84,660,177	77,207,287
Bank of England		5,908,870	10,213,574
Bank of Ireland		1,333,984	1,779,131
Totals		92,103,031	89,199,992

* Including 652,000/ and 148,000/ respectively repaid to Revenue out of Telegraph Loan, and not included in the Budget Estimate
† As stated in the Budget.
‡ As sanctioned by Parliament.
§ Including the whole of the Alabama Indemnity.
|| Including Supplementary Grants

PROMOTIONS AND APPOINTMENTS.

Jan 1 Hon Edward Granville George Howard, Baron Lanerton of Lanerton, in the county of Cumberland

Right Hon Sir James Moncreiff, Bart, Baron Moncreiff, of Tulliebole, in the county of Kinross

Right Hon. Sir John Duke Coleridge, Knight, Chief Justice of Her Majesty's Court of Common Pleas, Baron Coleridge, of Ottery Saint Mary, in the county of Devon

Right Hon William Monsell, Baron Emily, of Terroe, in the county of Limerick

James Lane, Esq, Judge of Her Majesty's Chief Consular Court for Egypt.

Frederick Arpa, Esq, Law Secretary to Her Majesty's Chief Consular Court for Egypt, and Vice-Consul in the Ottoman Dominions

William John, Lord Monson, Treasurer of Her Majesty's Household.

Henry Edward, Earl of Ilchester, Captain of Her Majesty's Honourable Corps of Gentlemen-at-Arms

— 14. James Bontain, Esq, one of the Grooms of the Privy Chamber in Ordinary to Her Majesty

William Gillespie Dickson, Esq, advocate & Sheriff of the Shire or Sheriffdom of Lanark

— 17 The Most Noble Francis Charles Hastings, Duke of Bedford, Custos Rotulorum of the Isle of Ely and Charles Watson Townley, Esq, Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of the county of Cambridge

— 24. Julian Pauncefoot, Esq., Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the Leeward Islands John Rawlins Semper, Esq., first Puisne Judge and Sholto Thomas Pemberton, Esq., second Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of the Leeward Islands.

Richard Paul Amphlett, Serjeant-at-

Law, one of the Barons of the Court of Exchequer, and Knight

— 28 Thomas Sidgreaves, Esq, Chief Justice of the Straits Settlements, Knight

— 30 John Henry de Villiers, Esq, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court at the Cape of Good Hope

— 31 Julian Pauncefoot, Esq, Chief Justice of the Leeward Islands, Knight

Feb 2 Right Hon William John, Lord Monson, and Sir Samuel Martin, Knight, Privy Counsellors

— 7 William Alexander George Young, Esq, Government Secretary and Secretary to the Court of Policy and Combined Court of the Colony of British Guiana.

— 9 John Alexander Shortt, Esq, Consul in the Island of Corsica.

Henry Byng, Esq, Colonial Secretary to the Island of Tobago

— 19 Most Hon Hugh Lupus, Marquis of Westminster, K.G., Duke of Westminster

Right Hon George Young, one of the Lords of Session, and one of the Lords of Justiciary in Scotland.

— 20 John Kirk, Esq., Director and Principal Clerk of Her Majesty's Chancery in Scotland.

— 21 John Wilson Marshall, Esq, M.A., of the University of Edinburgh, Inspector of Schools in Scotland

Right Hon Lord Odo William Russell (Her Majesty's Ambassador to the Emperor of Germany), K.C.B.

William Tayleur Thomson, Esq, John Milton, Esq, Col Frederick Alexander Campbell, R.A., Reginald Earle Welby, Esq, Lieut-Col George Edward Hilher, Henry Howard, Esq, and Edward Hertslet, Esq; C.B., Charles Reed, Esq. M.P., and Charles Alexander Wood, Esq, Knights.

Feb 25 William Brampton Gurdon, Esq.; C.B.

Col. Henry Hopkinson, Bengal Staff Corps; CSI

— 26. Humphrey Ewing Crum Ewing, of Strathleven, Lieutenant of the county of Dumbarton

— 27 Lieut - Col Horatio Page Vance, Gentleman-at-Arms

— 28 Right Hon. John Robert, Viscount Sydney, G.C.B., Earl Sidney of Seabury

Right Hon. Edward Cardwell, Viscount Cardwell of Ellerbeck.

Right Hon. Chichester Fortescue; Baron Carlingford of Carlingford

Right Hon. Sir Thomas Francis Fremantle, Bart., Baron Cottlesloe of Swanbourne and of Hardwicke

Right Hon. Edmund Hammond, Baron Hammond of Kirkella

March 2 Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.C.B., Harry Stephen Thompson, of Kirby Hall, in the county of York, Esq., Mathew Wilson, of Ehton Hall, in the county of York, Esq., Charles Foster, of Lysways, in the county of Stafford, Esq., Thomas Fraser Grove, of Ferne House, in the county of Wilts, Esq., George Burrows, M.D., President of the Royal College of Physicians of London, and one of Her Majesty's Physicians in Ordinary, Thomas McClure, of Belmont and of Dundela, in the county of Down, Esq., John Heathcoat Heathcoat Amory, of Knightshayes Court, in the county of Devon, Esq., Richard Green-Price, of Norton Manor, in the county of Radnor, Esq., and William Miller, of Manderston, in the county of Berwick, Esq., Baronets

James Watson, Esq., Lord Provost of Glasgow, Knight

— 4 Right Hon. Sir John Somerset Pakington, G.C.B.; Baron Hampton of Hampton Lovett and of Westwood, in the county of Worcester

Peter Henry Edlin, Esq., Q.C., Assistant Judge of the Court of the Sessions of the Peace in and for the county of Middlesex

Major Robert Miller Mundy, Lieutenant-Governor of the Colony of British Honduras

— 9. Sir Henry Barkly, K.C.B., and Sir John Peter Grant, K.C.B., K.C.M.G.

Most Hon. Marquis of Normanby, Sir Alfred Stephen Knight, C.B., Sir James McCulloch, Knight, John O'Shanassy, Esq., C.M.G., and John Scott, Esq., K.C.M.G.

George Berkeley, Esq., Major Robert Miller Mundy, William Wellington Cairns, Esq., Henry Turner Irving,

Esq., and William Hepburn Rennie, Esq., C.M.G.

Ven. John Sutton Titterton, M.A., Archdeacon of Smiley, Bishop Suffragan of the See of Guildford

— 14 Sir William Grey, K.C.S.I., Captain (General and Governor-in-Chief of the Island of Jamaica

James Robert Longden, Esq., C.M.G., Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of British Guiana

William Wellington Cairns, Esq., C.M.G., Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Island of Trinidad

Francis Snowden, Esq., Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of the Colony of Hong Kong

George Philippo, Esq., Senior Puisne Judge and Theodor Thomas Ford, Esq., Junior Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of the Straits Settlements

George Hurley Barne, Esq., Attorney-General for the Island of Jamaica.

— 16 Right Hon. John Wilson Patten, Baron Winmarleigh, of Winmarleigh, in the county palatine of Lancaster

— 17. John Smale, Esq., Chief Justice of Hong Kong, Knight

— 28 Henry Thomas, Baron Ravensworth, Baron Eslington, of Eslington Park, in the county of Northumberland, and Earl of Ravensworth, of Ravensworth Castle, in the county palatine of Durham

— 31 Major-General Sir Garnet Joseph Wolseley, K.C.M.G., C.B., Capt. John Edmund Commersell, R.N., C.B., V.C., Capt. William Nathan Wrighte Hewett, R.N., V.C., Col. Sir Archibald Alison, Bart., C.B., Col. John Chatham M'Leod, C.B., 42nd Regiment, and Deputy Surg.-Gen. Anthony Dickson Home, C.B., V.C., K.C.B.

Capt. Walter James Hunt Grubbe, R.N., Capt. the Hon. Edmund Robert Fremantle, R.N., Col. John Carstairs M'Neill, V.C., C.M.G., Col. George Richards Greaves, Col. Francis Worgan Festing, R.M.A., Capt. Percy Pitt Luxmoore, R.N., Col. Henry Evelyn Wood, V.C., Col. George Pomeroy Colley, Lieut.-Col. the Hon. Savage Mostyn, Lieut.-Col. James Maxwell, Lieut.-Col. George Daniel Webber, Lieut.-Col. Arthur Frederick Warren, Lieut.-Col. Baker Creed Russell, Lieut.-Col. Duncan Macpherson, Lieut.-Col. Francis Cunningham Scott, Lieut.-Col. Robert Home, R.E., Lieut.-Col. Thomas Durand Baker, Major Redvers Henry Buller, Major Arthur John Rait, R.A., Major William Francis Butler, Deputy-Controller Matthew Bell Irvine, C.M.G., Staff-Surg. Ahmuty Irwin, R.N., Surg.-Major Thomas

Macdougall Bleckley, M.D., Staff-Surg Henry Fegan, M.D., R.N., Surg-Major Robert William Jackson, and Surg-Major Charles Benjamin Mosse, C.B.

Major-Gen Sir Garnet Joseph Wolseley, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., K.G.C.M.G.

May 1 Henry William Peek, of Rousdon, in the county of Devon, Esq., Philip Rose, of Rayners, in the county of Buckingham, Esq., George Elliott, of Peshaw, in the county palatine of Durham, Esq., John Kelk, in the county of Middlesex, Esq., Baronets.

— 8 Right Hon John John, Baron Kesteven, Custos Rotulorum of the Soke of Peterborough.

Commander John Hawley Glover, R.N., K.G.C.M.G.

Col. Francis Worgan Festing, R.M.A., C.B., K.C.M.G.

Col. Robert William Harley, C.B., Capt. the Hon Edmund Robert Fremantle, R.N., C.B., Roger Tuckfield Goldsworthy, Esq., Surg. Major Samuel Rowe, Capt. Reginald William Sartorius, Lieut. John Henry Barnard, Major William Augustus Tryden Helden, Deputy-Commissary Henry Frederick Blissett; Vice-Admiral Charles George Edward Patey; and James Arndell Youl, of the Colony of Tasmania, Esq., C.M.G.

Right Hon. Francis Robert, Earl of Rosslyn, H.M. High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland.

Major-Gen. the Hon. Saint George Gerald Foley, C.B., Lieutenant-Governor of the Island of Guernsey.

— 12 Edward Maxwell Kenny, Esq., M.A., John Gerald Fitzmaurice, Esq., B.A., and Thomas Anderson Stewart, Esq., M.A., Inspectors of Schools.

Joseph William Bazalgette, Esq., C.B.; Knight.

— 16 Lieut.-Col. James Macnaghten Hogg, K.C.B.

— 23 His Royal Highness Prince Arthur, William Patrick Albert, K.G., K.T., K.P., Earl of Sussex and Duke of Connaught and of Strathearn.

Edwin Corbett, Esq.; Minister Resident to the Swiss Confederation.

Sidney Locock, Esq., Minister Resident and Consul-General to the Republics of Guatemala, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Salvador.

— 28 Robert Hawthorn Collins, Esq.; C.B.

Col. Stephen John Hill, C.B.; Col. William Francis Drummond Jervis, R.E., C.B., Penrose Goodchild Julian, Esq., C.B.; K.C.M.G.

Lieut.-Col. Henry Fitzharding Berke-

ley Maxse, Giovanni Battista Trapani, Esq., LL.D., Gordon Gardner, Esq., Sir George Barrow, Bart., Virgile Naz, Esq., Saul Samuel, Esq., C.M.G.

30 Robert Henry Davis, Esq., C.S.I., Col. Richard John Meade, C.S.I., Col. Lewis Pelly, C.S.I., K.C.S.I.

The Hon. Ashley Eden, Rajah Ramanath Tagore, Vernon Hugh Schalch, Esq., C.S.I.

June 4 Henry Ludlow, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Attorney-General for the Island of Trinidad.

Alexander Turing, Esq., Consul for the Provinces of South Holland and Zealand.

— 22 Henry Connor, Esq., LL.B., Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the Colony of Natal.

July 4 Rev. Francis Pigou, M.A., Rev. James Moorhouse; Chaplains in Ordinary to Her Majesty.

Rev. George Granville Bradley, M.A., Rev. William Henry Bliss, M.A., honorary Chaplains.

— 7. William H. Brewer, Esq., M.A., Inspector of Schools.

John Rice Crowe, Esq., C.B.; and John Green, Esq., C.B., Knights.

— 15 John Millar, Esq., Lord of Session in Scotland.

— 18 Hon. and Rev. Grantham Munston Yorke, M.A., Dean of Worcester.

— 20. Richard Francis Morgan, Esq., Knight.

— 21. William Watson, Esq., Solicitor-General for Scotland.

— 24 Henry Ernest Bulwer, Esq., C.M.G., Donald Maclean, Esq., C.M.G., K.C.M.G.

Col. Edward Wolstenholme Ward, R.E., C.M.G.

— 27 Thomas Douglas Forsyth, Esq., C.B., Extra K.C.S.I.

— 31 Capt. George Cumine Strahan, R.A., Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Gold Coast Colony.

Charles Cameron Lees, Esq., Administrator of the Government of the Settlement of Lagos.

August 1. Right Hon. Andrew Lusk, of Colney Park, in the county of Hertford, Lord Mayor of the City of London, Baronet.

Hugh Robert Hughes, of Kinnel, in the county of Denbigh, Esq., Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of the county of Flint.

— 4 Lieut.-Col. Thomas Edward Gordon, Bengal Staff Corps; C.S.I.

— 5. Right Hon. Claude, Earl of Strathmore and Kincphorn, Lieutenant of the County of Forfar.

— 6. Isaac Saunders Leadham, Esq., M.A., and Edmund Mackenzie Sneyd-

Kynnersley, Esq., M.A., Inspectors of Schools

Mutu Coomara Swamy Esq Charles Whetham, Esq., and John Henry Johnson, Esq., Knights.

August 10 Charles James Blasius Williams, M.D., one of Her Majesty's Physicians Extraordinary.

— 25 Edward Frederick Smyth Pigott, Esq., M.A., Examiner of Stage Plays.

— 27. Henry Longley, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, the third Charity Commissioner for England and Wales

September 25 Edward Smallwood, Esq.; Consul at Venice

— 28 The Right Hon Sir James Fergusson, Bart., Edward Deas Thomson, Esq., C.B., John Sealy, Esq., C.M.G., K.C.M.G.

October 3 The Hon and Rev. Orlando Watkin Weld Forester, M.A., Chancellor and Canon Residentiary of York Cathedral.

— 7. William Warren Stretton, Esq., Queen's Advocate for Sierra Leone

— 8 Rev. Frederick Watkins B.D., Archdeacon of York

— 14. Spenser St. John, Esq., Minister Resident and Consul-General to the Republic of Peru

— 17 Capt Samuel Barrett Miles, Consul at Muscat

— 28 Robert Stuart, Esq., Minister Resident and Consul-General to the Republic of Hayti.

— 29 John Marshall, Esq., Advocate, Lord of Session in Scotland

— 31 George Dundas, Esq., Lieutenant-Governor of the Island of St. Vincent.

William Frederick Haynes Smith, Esq.; Attorney-General for the Colony of British Guiana

Nicholas Atkinson, Esq., Solicitor-General for the Colony of British Guiana

November 7. Charles Cameron Lees, Esq., Lieutenant-Governor of the Gold Coast Colony

— 9. George Edward Stanley, Esq., Consul-General for the Russian ports in the Black Sea

Alexander Gollan, Esq., Consul at Grey Town.

Josias Pernis, Esq., Consul in the Island of Sardinia.

— 14 Major-Gen Sir Arthur Purves Phayre, K.C.S.I., C.B., Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Island of Mauritius.

— The Most Hon. the Marquis of Normandy, K.C.M.G., Governor and Com-

mander-in-Chief of the Colony of New Zealand

William Wellington Cairns, Esq., C.M.G., Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of Queensland

George Berkeley, Esq., C.M.G., Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Leeward Islands.

William Cleaver Francis Robinson, Esq., C.M.G.; Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of Western Australia

— 16 George Walpole Leake, Esq., one of Her Majesty's Counsel for the Colony of Western Australia.

— Malcolm Janson Brown, Esq.; Collector of Customs and Treasurer for the Gold Coast Colony.

— 17. Hugh Mallet, Esq., Consul in the State of Panama.

— 25. Sir William Muir, K.C.S.I.; Ordinary Member of the Council of the Governor-General of India.

26 Lord Lytton, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the King of Portugal

— 30 Charles Alfred Cookson, Esq., Consul at Alexandria and Judge of Chief Consular Court for Egypt

December 3 Leopold Cust, Esq., one of the Gentlemen Ushers of the Privy Chamber.

— William Ernest Browning, Esq., Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the Leeward Islands

— Hon Sir Arthur Gordon, K.C.M.G., Governor of Fiji

— 12 John Holker, Esq., M.P., Q.C., Solicitor-General, and Ludlow Cotter, Esq., Knights

— Walter Scott, Esq., Member of Legislative Council, Straits Settlements

— 14 Surgeon-Major Samuel Rowe, C.M.G., Member of Legislative Council, Gold Coast Colony

— 15. Richard P. A. Swettenham, Esq., Inspector of Schools

— 16 Col. FitzRoy Molyneux Henry Somers, R.E., Member of the Council of the Bermudas or Somers Islands.

— 17. James Bengall Martin, Esq.; one of Her Majesty's Counsel for the Leeward Islands

— 25 Major-General Evelyn Henry Frederick Pocklington, Director-General of Military Education

— 28. John D'Auvergne Dumaresq, Esq.; Colonial Secretary for the Gold Coast Colony

— 29. Munguldass Nathooboy, of Bombay, Esq., C.S.I., Knight

LIST OF MINISTRY APPOINTED FEBRUARY, 1874.

<i>First Lord of the Treasury</i> (Premier), Mr. Disraeli	<i>Colonial Secretary</i> , Earl of Carnarvon
<i>Lord Chancellor</i> , Lord Cairns	<i>Secretary for War</i> , Mr. Gathorne Hardy
<i>Lord President of the Council</i> , Duke of Richmond.	<i>Home Department</i> , Mr. R. A. Cross
<i>Lord Privy Seal</i> , Earl of Malmesbury.	<i>First Lord of the Admiralty</i> , Mr Ward Hunt.
<i>Foreign Secretary</i> , Earl of Derby	<i>Chancellor of the Exchequer</i> , Sir Stafford Northcote
<i>Secretary for India</i> , Marquis of Salis- bury.	<i>Postmaster-General</i> , Lord John Manners.

The above compose the Cabinet.

<i>President of the Board of Trade</i> , Sir Charles Adderley	<i>Secretary to the Admiralty</i> , Hon. Alger- non Egerton
<i>President of the Local Government Board</i> , Mr. Selater-Booth	<i>Judge-Advocate and Paymaster-General</i> , Mr Cave
<i>First Commissioner of Works</i> , Lord Henry Lennox.	<i>Civil Lord of the Admiralty</i> , Sir Massey Lopes.
<i>Vice-President of the Council</i> , Lord Sandon	<i>Secretaries to the Treasury</i> , Mr W. H Smith, Mr Hart Dyke
<i>Attorney-General</i> , Sir John Karslake, afterwards Sir Richard Baggallay	<i>Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland</i> , Duke of Abercorn
<i>Solicitor-General</i> , Sir Richard Baggallay, afterwards Sir John Holker	<i>Attorney-General for Ireland</i> , Dr Ball.
<i>Under Home Secretary</i> , Sir H Selwyn- Ibbetson	<i>Chief Secretary for Ireland</i> , Sir M Hicks- Beach
<i>Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs</i> , Hon Robert Bourke	<i>The Lord-Advocate of Scotland</i> , Mr Gordon.
<i>Under-Secretary for India</i> , Lord George Hamilton.	<i>Mistress of the Robes</i> , Duchess of Wel- lington.
<i>Under-Secretary for Colonies</i> , Mr J Low- ther.	<i>Lord Chamberlain</i> , Marquis of Hert- ford.
<i>Secretary of Local Government Board</i> , Mr C S Read.	<i>Master of the Horse</i> , Earl of Bradford.
<i>Chancellor of Duchy of Lancaster</i> , Colonel Taylor.	<i>Lord Steward</i> , Earl Beauchamp.
	<i>Captain of the Gentlemen at Arms</i> , Mar- quis of Exeter

SHERIFFS FOR 1874.

ENGLAND.

BEDFORDSHIRE.—Salisbury Gillies Payne, Blunham (claiming to be Sir Salisbury
Gillies Payne, Bart.).
BERKSHIRE.—William How Dunn, Standen Manor, Hungerford.
BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.—Lawrence Robert Hall, Foscott Manor
CAMBRIDGESHIRE AND HUNTINGDONSHIRE.—James Montagu, Elm, Isle of Ely, and
Melton-on-the Hill, Doncaster
CHESHIRE.—Sir Edward William Watkin, Rose Hill
CUMBERLAND.—John Lindow, Ehen Hall
DERBYSHIRE.—Godfrey Franceys Meynell, Meynell Langley.
DEVONSHIRE.—John Walrond Walrond, Bradfield
DORSETSHIRE.—John William Townsend Fyler, Hefleton

DURHAM.—John Fogg Elliot, Elvet Hill, Durham
 ESSEX.—Thomas George Graham White, Wethersfield
 GLOUCESTERSHIRE.—Thomas Sebastian Bazley, Hatherop Castle, Fairford.
 HEREFORDSHIRE.—Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Powell Symonds, Pengethley, near Ross.
 HERTFORDSHIRE.—Sir John Gage Saunders Sebright, Beechwood, Markyate Street, Bart
 KENT.—Charles Stewart Hardy, Chilham Castle, Chilham, Canterbury.
 LEICESTERSHIRE.—Edward Warner, Quorndon Hall.
 LINCOLNSHIRE.—Bennet Rothes Langton, Langton
 MONMOUTHSHIRE.—Crawshay Bailey, Maindiff Court, Abergavenny
 NORFOLK.—Robert Fellowes, Shotterham
 NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.—John Albert Craven, Whilton
 NORTHUMBERLAND.—Shalcross Fitzherbert Widdington, Newton Hall.
 NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.—Robert Kelham, Bleasby.
 OXFORDSHIRE.—Arthur, Viscount Valentia, Bletchington Park.
 RUTLAND.—Thomas John Stafford Hotchkin, South Luffenham.
 SHROPSHIRE.—Richard Thomas Lloyd, Aston Hall, Oswestry
 SOMERSETSHIRE.—George Fownes Luttrell, Dunster Castle, Dunster.
 COUNTY OF SOUTHAMPTON.—Sir William Wellesley Knighton, Blendworth Lodge, Horndean
 STAFFORDSHIRE.—Sir Tonman Mosley, Rolleston Hall, Bart.
 SUFFOLK.—Thomas Barbot Beale, Brettenham Park
 SURREY.—John Coysgarne Sim, Combe Wood, Kingston-on-Thames.
 SUSSEX.—George Meek, Brantridge, Cuckfield.
 WARWICKSHIRE.—Edward Allesley Boughton Ward Boughton Leigh, Brownsover Hall, near Rugby;
 WESTMORELAND.—Sir Henry James Tufton, Appleby Castle
 WILTSHIRE.—Edward Chaddock Lowndes, Castle Coombe, Chippenham
 WORCESTERSHIRE.—Joseph Jones, Abberley Hall, Stourport
 YORKSHIRE.—The Hon. Arthur Duncombe, Kilnwick Percy

WALES.

NORTH AND SOUTH

ANGLESEY.—Robert Roberts, Plas Llechylched.
 BRECONSHIRE.—William de Winton, Maesderwen.
 CARDIGANSHIRE.—David Thomas, Llanfair, Llandyssil.
 CARMARTHENSHIRE.—David Pugh, Manorabon, Llandilofawr.
 CARNARVONSHIRE.—Benjamin Thomas Ellis, Rhyllech.
 DENBIGHSHIRE.—John Carstairs Jones, Gelligynan.
 FLINTSHIRE.—William Keates, Greenfield.
 GLAMORGANSHIRE.—John Whitlock Nichol Carne, St. Donatt's Castle, near Cowbridge.
 MERIONETHSHIRE.—William Edward Oakeley, Tanybwlic.
 MONTGOMERYSHIRE.—Thomas Openshaw Lomax, Bodfach.
 PEMBROKESHIRE.—James Bowen Summers, Milton.
 RADNORSHIRE.—Richard William Banks, Ridgebourne, Kington, Herefordshire

CORNWALL.—John Christopher Baron Lethbridge, Tregeare.
 LANCASHIRE.—Richard Smethurst, Ellerbeck, near Chorley

UNIVERSITY DEGREES.

(OXFORD).

TRINITY TERM, 1873 *

In Literis Humanioribus.

CLASSIS I.

Eastwick, J (a), University
 Forbes, W H (b), Balliol •
 Plummer, C (c), Corpus.
 Boscoe, H. W. K., Corpus
 Smith, A. L., Balliol
 Wright, T H, Trinity.

CLASSIS II.

Cholmondeley, F G, Ch Ch.
 Craddock, F. H., Lincoln.
 Drummond, J R., New.
 Elgin, Earl of, Balliol.
 Grey, W., Exeter
 Lanton, W. R., Corpus.
 Richmond, W J, Unatt
 Street, A. R., Oriel.

CLASSIS III.

Blackwood, A R., Balliol.
 Cull, J B, Balliol
 Fynes-Clinton, A N, Ch Ch.
 Miles, C O, Trinity. •
 Smith, G. W., Exeter.
 Whitefoord, B, New

CLASSIS IV.

Dowding, F T, St John's
 Farrer, W, Balliol.
 Sweet, H., Balliol
 Wilkinson, G, Worcester

One hundred and twenty-six
 others passed

Examiners.

H Furneaux
 T. Fowler
 H. L Thompson.
 A Robinson

In Scientis Mathematicis et Physicis

CLASSIS I.

Elhott, E B, Magdalen.
 Judson, J E, Ch Ch.
 Lomax, C. H., Corpus.
 Nash, A. M, Queen's
 Pargiter, F E, Exeter
 Stocker, W. N, Ch Ch

CLASSIS II.

None

CLASSIS III

Beaumont, S, Ch Ch.
 Ransome, C, Merton

CLASSIS IV

Bryans, E L, Queen's

Sixty-three others passed

Examiners

G S Ward.
 H J S Smith.
 W H Lavery.

* From the Calendar for 1874.

a, Fellow of Trinity, b, Fellow of Balliol, c, Fellow of Corpus.

In Scientia Naturali.

CLASSIS I.

Bruce-Clarke, W., Pembroke.
 Gulliver, G., Pembroke.
 Jackson, W. H., New.
 Kidd, P., Balliol
 Southam, F. A., Trinity.
 Tanner, H. W. Ll., Jesus
 Tindall, R., Queen's.

CLASSIS II

Becker, W., New.
 Phillips, W. H., Jesus.

CLASSIS III

Hakewill, J. R., Exeter.

CLASSIS IV

None

Examiners.

W H. Corfield
 R H M. Bosanquet
 A W. Reinold

In Historia Moderna.

CLASSIS I

Gibson, G., Worcester
 Harrison, H. E. B., Oriel.
 Mortimer, H. B., New
 Roberts, A. W., Lincoln
 Walcham, H. O. (a), Ch. Ch.
 Wildg, G. Ll. B., New.

CLASSIS II

Barnett, H., Ch Ch
 Fletcher, K. R., New.
 Hardinge, M S C. F., New.
 Hebb, H. A., Queen's.
 Loch, C. S., Balliol
 Lyall, R. C., Trinity
 Moberly, W A., Ch Ch
 Ornsby, J A., Lincoln.
 Scott, A., Balliol.
 Waldy, A G., Merton
 Waters, W G., Worcester.

a, Fellow of All Souls.

In Jurisprudentia.

CLASSIS I

Grigsby, W E., Balliol
 Holt-White, R., Oriel.
 Urmsen, G H., Ch Ch

CLASSIS II.

Fortescue, J B., Balliol
 Plumb, T S., Balliol
 Wadmore, J A. W., Oriel

CLASSIS III.

Evensley, W P., Queen's
 Kennedy, C W., University.
 Kenrick, E., New
 Micholls, S P., New.
 Waid, E. T., University

CLASSIS IV.

Evans, W. Jesus
 Sidgwick, A., Lincoln

Examiners.

M Bernard.
 J Bryce
 A. S. Chavasse

In Sacra Theologia.

CLASSIS I

Aghonby, F. K. Y., Queen's

CLASSIS II.

Birkmyre, N Y., Corpus.
 Dyball, T S., Brasenose
 Sharpe, H M., Worcester
 Shuttleworth, H C., St. Mary Hall.
 Smith E F N., Trinity,
 Williams, C E E., Brasenose.

CLASSIS III.

Eddison, O., Lincoln
 Harwood, H., Magdalen Hall
 Hodgson, G. A., University

CLASSIS IV.

Bardwell, T. N. F., Pembroke
 Fellowes, W. G., Merton
 Hodson, T., Lincoln
 Orred, J. W., Merton
 Sayres, E. H. C., Exeter.

Examiners

W. Stubbs.
 C. W. Boase.
 M. Creighton

CLASSIS III.

Alexander, E. F., Brasenose
 Bury, E. A., University
 Carter, W. M., Pembroke
 Cross, T. U., Exeter
 Curling, E., Brasenose
 Edwards, E. W., Ch. Ch.
 Ellrodt, F. W., Unatt
 Hamilton, G., University.
 Leach, R., Corpus.
 Nichols, S. E., Magdalen.
 Springett, W. D., Queen's.
 Watkins, O. D., Merton

CLASSIS IV.

Brown, C., Wadham
 Hyndman, F. A., New Inn Hall.
 Jackson, W., Worcester
 Leonard, A. A., Ornel
 Maxwell-Lyte, J., Magdalen.
 Mountain, J., Queen's
 Spencer, W., Merton
 Walker, O. R., St John's.

Examiners.

J. B. Mozley
 E. H. Plumptre.
 H. Deane

TERM MICH., 1873

In Literis Humanioribus

CLASSIS I.

Baring, F. H., Corpus
 Bradley, A. C., Balliol
 Brown, G. B., Ornel
 Butler, A. J., Trinity
 Cam, W. H., New
 Holmes, E. G. A., St John's
 Leach, A. F., New
 Paget, F. (a), Ch. Ch.
 Schilos, D. F., Corpus
 Scott, G. R., New
 Williams, J., Lincoln

CLASSIS II.

Benson, R. H., Balliol
 Bond, F., Lincoln
 Brown, J. MacM., Balliol
 Cook, A. K., New
 Dunn, J. C., New
 Edwards, A. C., Lincoln
 Elgood, E. J., Exeter
 Eastcourt, E. W., Balliol
 Fowler, R. M., Pembroke.

In Scientiis Mathematicis et Physicis.

CLASSIS I.

Croft, W. B., Pembroke
 Davies, T. D., Jesus
 Edwards, W., Queen's.
 Jones, R. A., Corpus

CLASSIS II.

Archibald, E. D., St. John's.
 Campbell, E. J., Exeter.
 Pigot, J. C., Lincoln

Grey, H G., Wadham
 Hawes, F W., Edmund Hall.
 Hensley, E J., Exeter
 Hope, H J., Ch. Ch
 Little, J. B., Ch Ch
 Lucas, V. W., Ch Ch
 Mackarness, C. C., Exeter.
 Maddison, F. B., Brasenose
 Moberly, W O., Balliol
 Newman, G. W., Pembroke
 Skinner, J H., Balliol
 Vaux, G B., Corpus
 Way, J P., Brasenose

CLASSIS III

Bastow, T C V, Trinity
 Bean, E, Trinity
 Burke, H L, Lincoln
 Deane, F H, St John's
 Elam, H D, St John's
 Elliott F E H, Balliol
 Green, F T, New
 Gunion, R H, Lincoln
 Knowling, R J, Balliol.
 Maude, J, Merton
 Moore, E H, Queen's
 O'Brien, F A, Ch Ch
 Ottaway, C J, Brasenose
 Ottley, H. B. St John's.
 Parkins, W T, Balliol
 Pearson, F J N, Balliol
 Poole, A. W. Worcester.
 Prichard, J. E., Wadham.
 Quekett, A. E., Brasenose.
 Simonds, A, Queen's
 Smith, H R C., Magdalen
 Spooner, G H, Pembroke
 Tuckwell, C W, Queen's
 Walpole, A S, Worcester
 Wedderburn, H G, Balliol

CLASSIS IV.

Brolribb, A. A., Exeter
 Darley, B., Ch. Ch.
 Haden, F S, Ch. Ch
 Massey, R., Alb. Hall
 Overy, H., Queen's
 Thomas, J S, University

Eighty-four others passed

Examiners.

W. W Capes
 H L. Thompson..
 T R Thursfield
 A Robinson

In Scientia Naturali.

CLASSIS I

Burn, S S, Corpus
 Davies, J H, Corpus

CLASSIS III

Poole, S, Exeter.
 Wood, S., Exeter

CLASSIS IV.

Smith, E, Queen's.

Sixty-two others passed.

Examiners

G S Ward
 H. J S Smith
 W H Lavery.

In Jurisprudentia.

CLASSIS I.

Sebastian, L. B, Exeter

Hill, A. du B., Magdalen
 Rives, W. C., Corpus
 Schofield, R. H. A., Lincoln
 Udall, T. B., Queen's
 Wright, G. A., Unatt

CLASSIS II.

None

CLASSIS III

None.

CLASSIS IV

None.

Examiners.

W. H. Corfield
 A. W. Reinold.
 M. Foster.

In Historia Moderna.

CLASSIS I.

Boodle, R. W., Magdalen
 Carlyon, H. B., Corpus.
 Coolidge, W. A. B., Exeter
 Diggle, J. R., Wadham.
 Jerrard, A. W., Ch. Ch.

CLASSIS II

Begbie, A. J., Trinity.
 Foiman, A. F. E., Trinity.
 Hannen, J. C., Trinity.
 Hill, C. B. H., New
 Philips, W. M., Merton.
 Robinson, W. D., Ch. Ch.
 Woodd, L. H. O., Magdalen

CLASSIS III

Bellot, C. F., Unatt
 Charrington, A. F., University.
 Eastwick, R. W. E., Merton.
 Forman, J. R., Oriel
 Gladstone, J. R., Ch. Ch.

CLASSIS II.

Dangars, J. W. L., St. Alban's Hall
 Drummond, J. R., New
 Fraser, H., Oriel
 Goodwin, T. A., Balliol
 Minet, W., University
 Parke, A. E., Ch. Ch.
 Roberts, A. W., Lincoln

CLASSIS III

Andrews, W. S., Ch. Ch.
 Butler, S., Ch. Ch.
 Corbett, W. A., Pembroke.
 Parrott, J. A., Brasenose
 Reynolds, B., Wadham
 Sayer, J., Ch. Ch.

CLASSIS IV.

Atkinson, H. P., Magdalen Hall.
 Brown, J. A., Worcester
 Hodge, R. F., Worcester
 Smith, G. E., Exeter.

Examiners

M. Bernard.
 J. Bryce
 T. E. Holland.

In Sacra Theologia.

CLASSIS I.

Bullock, J., Pembroke
 Woods, F. H., Jesus

CLASSIS II.

Boulter, S., Keble
 Cockin, J. T. B., Queen's
 Darlington, J., Brasenose
 Davies, S. E., Worcester
 Haugh, W. E., Exeter
 Hewlett, A. M., Queen's
 Isaac, G. M., Pembroke.
 Wilkinson, J. F., Wadham

CLASSIS III

Adams, J. N., Queen's
 Bartlett, F. A., Pembroke
 Bevan, C. B., Exeter
 Butler, H. J., Brasenose
 De Wolf, R. B., Wadham

Griffith, H W, Queen's.
 Holcroft, C., Trinity
 Leney, H L, Oriel.
 Longman, C. J, University.
 Mason, A S. A., Trinity.
 Milner, G, Ch Ch
 Robinson, G. W., Queen's
 Trehearne, G H, St John's
 Tugwell, A B, Ch Ch
 Warne, H M, Pembroke

CLASSIS IV

Blackburne, F W, Merton
 Foley, E F W, Wadham
 Heathcote, J C., Oriel
 Marshall, E H, Oriel
 Nicholson, A W, Magdalen
 Poley, T W, Merton
 Porter, H B, Exeter
 Rowbotham, J F, Balliol

Examiners

E A Freeman.
 W Stubbs
 C W Bonze

Garnier, E S, University
 Hooper, G. F. Brasenose
 Johnson, A B, Worcester
 Rundle, T. S, Queen's
 Walsh, A O., Queen's

CLASSIS IV

Altham, A S, Ch Ch
 Bien, R, Worcester
 Ervington, H, Pembroke
 Hamilton, C C, University
 Lomas, G, Magdalen Hall.
 Monck, E F B, Pembroke
 Tucker, J M, St Alban's Hall.
 Tylee, T. G, Trinity
 Vine, M G., Magdalen Hall.
 Wood, R G, Exeter

Examiners

J B Mozley
 E H. Plumptre
 H Deane.

CAMBRIDGE.

MATHEMATICAL TRIPOS, 1874 *

MODERATORS.

Joseph Wolstenholme, M.A, Christ's Church
 Alexander Freeman, M A, St John's

EXAMINERS

William Davidson Niven, M.A, Trinity
 George Pirie, M A, Queens'.

ADDITIONAL EXAMINER.

Sir William Thompson, LL.D, St. Peter's.

WRANGLERS †

Ds. Calliphronas, Caius
 Ball (1), Trinity
 Harris, Clare
 Craik, Emmanuel.
 { Dickson, Peter's
 { Stuart (2), Emmanuel.
 Clarke, St John's

{ Butcher α, Trinity.
 { Cox β, Trinity
 { Elliot, John's
 { Niven, Queen's
 { Barnard, John's.
 { Iddon, Sidney,
 { Lightfoot, Trinity Hall.
 { Pearson, Christ's.

* From the Calendar for 1874.

† In all cases of equality the names are bracketed α denotes that the person was in the first class of the Classical Tripos, β in the second; γ in the third.

{ Bose, Christ's	Black, Peter's
{ Marshall, Caius	Hammond, Queen's
{ Swanwick, Trinity.	{ Eaden, Trinity
{ Gilbert, Christ's.	{ Steel, Pembroke
{ Wyther, Jesus	{ Johnson, Trinity
{ Reynolds, John's.	{ Hargreaves, Trinity
{ Shackle, Catherine's	{ Smith, Magdalen.
{ Buxton, Trinity.	{ Pyffe, Queen's
{ Yeatman β , Trinity	{ Hawkins, Corpus.
{ Simmons, Magdalen	{ Bonham-Carter, Trinity.
{ Grant α , King's	{ Burn, John's.
{ Williams, Queen's	{ Simons, Catherine's
{ Allcock, Emmanuel.	{ Brown, Caius
{ Minton, Sidney	{ Newton, Trinity Hall
{ Galloway, Jesus.	{ Laying, Sidney
{ Glead, Peter's.	{ Stubbs, John's.
{ Madden, Clare	
{ Sanderson, Trinity.	

SENIOR OPTIMS.

Ds Bilderbeck, Catherine's	{ Diddin, John's
Colenso, F L, John's	{ Rigg, Pembroke.
Gell, Caius	{ Skrimshire, Magdalen
Beckett, John's.	{ Jones, Queen's
{ Crick, Pembroke	{ Peter, John's
{ Middlewood, John's	{ Minnitt, Trinity
{ Smith, Trinity	{ Pyne, Emmanuel
{ Strickland, Caius	{ Gaches, Sidney
{ Bates, Corpus	{ Hickson, Caius
{ Darwin, H, Trinity	{ Taylor, Trinity
{ De Renzi, Trinity	{ Torr, Trinity
	{ Dyson, Emmanuel

JUNIOR OPTIMS.

D1 { Caparn, Corpus	{ Carter, Trinity
{ Hall β , Catherine's	{ Cunningham, Clare
{ Bonsey, John's.	{ Fry, Emmanuel.
{ Dewberry, Corpus	{ Johnstone, Sidney
{ Goodwin, Caius	{ Beck, Trinity Hall
{ Roberts, Pembroke	{ Scott, Trinity
{ Waller, John's	{ Davenport, Clare
{ Baxter, Trinity.	{ Holcroft, John's
{ Taylor, King's	{ Brodie, John's
{ Cooksey, Sidney	{ Hensworth, Caius
{ Collin, Trinity.	{ Lowe, John's
{ Francis, Jesus	{ Rogers, Corpus
{ Smith, Clare.	{ Smi, Trinity Hall
{ Bestall, Jesus.	{ Ouchterlony, Trinity Hall
{ Blackmore, Christ's	{ Brown, Queen's
{ Davies, Pembroke.	{ Sawyer, H, John's.
{ Eastman, Clare	{ Sharrock, John's.

CLASSICAL TRIPOS, 1874

EXAMINERS.

John Maxwell Image, M.A., Trinity
 Frederick Apthorp Paley, M.A.
 John Edwin Sandys, M.A., St John's.
 Charles Edward Graves, M.A., St John's
 William Mandell Gunson, M.A., Christ's.
 Handley Carr Glyn Moule, M.A. Trinity

FIRST CLASS

Ds { Leaf, Trinity	Gibson, Trinity
{ Rawlins, King's	Lloyd, Peter's
{ Freese, John's	Gray, A., Jesus
{ Orpen, Christ's	{ Dyson, Caius
{ Rendall, Trinity	{ Streane, Emmanuel
{ Bramley, Jesus	{ Wilson, King's
{ Hicks, Trinity	{ Williams, John's
{ Butcher, Trinity	{ West, Pembroke
{ Perry, King's	{ Grant, King's
{ Clark, Trinity Hall	{ Wix, King's
{ Moser, John's	

SECOND CLASS

Ds. Bianchi, Peter's	Tillard, Clare
Leach, Christ's	Pyne, Pembroke
Warwick, Clare	{ Bourne, Sidney.
Cox, Trinity	{ Hughes, Downing.
Logan, John's	{ Morrison, John's
Moulton, Christ's.	{ Patterson, Catherine's
Weir, Trinity	{ Tyas, Trinity
Preston, Trinity	{ Hooton, Caius.
Hoare, Trinity	{ Snell, Trinity
{ Goldney, Trinity Hall.	{ Allen, Trinity
{ Grasott, John's	{ Kirchhoffer, Pembroke
{ Lee, Clare	{ Hall, Catherine's
{ Mervale, John's	{ Yeatman, Trinity.
{ Jolliffe, Trinity	

THIRD CLASS.

Ds. Prior, Caius	Goolden, Trinity
Rust, Trinity	Boddy, Emmanuel
{ Cheshire, Catherine's	{ French, Emmanuel.
{ May, E. H., Trinity	{ Harkness, Emmanuel
{ Lushington, Jesus	{ Dellhouse, Trinity.
{ Willecox, John's	{ Gwillim, John's
{ Todd, Trinity.	{ Hue, Trinity
{ Creak, Trinity.	{ Stanford, Trinity.
{ Petty, Corpus.	

THEOLOGICAL TRIPOS, 1874.

EXAMINERS.

B F Westcott, D D, Regius Professor of Divinity
 C A Swanson, D D, Norrisian Professor of Divinity.
 J J Stewart Perowne, D D, Trinity
 John E B Mayor, M A, Professor of Latin
 Handley C G Moule, M A, Trinity
 H M Gwatkin, M A, St John's

FIRST CLASS

Ds Bickersteth (a), Pembroke.	Smith, Pembroke
Luscombe (b), Clare	

SECOND CLASS

Ds Durrant, Trinity	Hutchinson, Caius
East, Trinity.	Pennefather, Trinity
Gardner, John's.	Robinson, Trinity.

(a) Scholefield prize, Evans' prize, (b) Hebrew prize.

THIRD CLASS

Ds Cuming, Trinity	Peto, Jesus
Fitzpatrick, Trinity	Phillips, Trinity
Hamer, John's	Saulez, Trinity
Hebert, Corpus	Starbuck, Trinity
Higgs, John's	Stokes, Trinity
Longworth, John's	

MORAL SCIENCES TRIPOS, 1873

EXAMINERS.

Thomas Woodhouse Levin, M.A., Catherine's
 John Rickards Mozley, M.A., King's
 Josiah Brown Pearson, M.A., John's.
 Percy Gardner, M.A., Christ's.

FIRST CLASS.

Ds Lyttelton, A. T., Trinity	{ Ambridge, F. J., John's Wills, John's
Cunynghame, John's	

SECOND CLASS.

Ds. Agnew, John's.	{ Baines, John's Cooper, C. J., John's

THIRD CLASS

Ds. Bashford, Trinity.	Brereton.
Quilter, Trinity	

NATURAL SCIENCES TRIPOS, 1873.

EXAMINERS.

Frederick S. Barff, M.A., Christ's
 J. Clerk Maxwell, M.A., Trinity
 M. Foster, M.A., Trinity.
 H. P. Gurney, M.A., Clare.
 J. Wale Hicks, M.A., Sidney
 J. Morris
 P. H. Pye-Smith, M.D.

FIRST CLASS.

Ds. Martin, Christ's.	{ Bettany, Caius Hartog, Trinity Sollas, John's Koch, John's.
Balfour, Trinity.	

SECOND CLASS.

Ds. { Balderston, Caius	{ Coe, Sidney Fletcher, Peter's Myers, Trinity Symons, Trinity Vinter, Caius Yonge, Trinity Hall
Davies, John's.	
Jukes-Browne, John's	
Ogilvie, Trinity	
Salomons Caius.	

THIRD CLASS.

Ds. Hawker, Trinity.	Lighton, Trinity.
----------------------	-------------------

LAW TRIPOS, 1873

EXAMINERS

E C Clark, M.A. Trinity
 W Ll Birkbeck, M.A., Downing.
 J T Abdy, LL.D., Trinity Hall
 B E Hammond, M.A. Trinity

FIRST CLASS

Ds Gley, Trinity	Pochin, Sidney
Bayard, John's	Matland, Trinity

SECOND CLASS

Ds Ward, Trinity Hall	MacLeod, Trinity
{ Boyd, John's	Percival, John's
{ Lawson Pembroke	Le Hunte, Trinity
{ Richardson, Downing	Moore, R G, Trinity
Izard, Trinity Hall.	Banks, A W, John's
Riley, Trinity	Gilmour, Trinity Hall
Anderson, Christ's	Napier, Hon M F, Trinity
Cooke, Trinity Hall	Mytton, John's

THIRD CLASS.

Ds Ivory, Corpus.	Tindal, King's
Candy, Caius	Stubbs, Corpus
{ Chalmers, Caius	Evans, Trinity
{ Cochrane, Joan's	
{ Potts, Sidney.	

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